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A Comparison of the Present Conventional Curriculum in English Grammar with a Curriculum Based Upon Pupil Deficiencies in Grades Six, Seven, and Eight in Certain Parochial Schools

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A COMPARISON OF THE PRESENT CONVENTIONAL CURRICULUM IN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR WITH A CURRICULUM BASED UPON
PUPIL DEFICIENCIES IN GRADES SIX, SEVEN,
AND EIGHT IN CERTAIN PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS

BY

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

During the past few decades there has been a gradual but a very appreciable change in attitude toward the study of English grammar. As late as the beginning of the present century grammar was taught for its own sake quite generally over the country. Textbooks such as Reed and Kellogg's Grammar offered intensive analysis of the more restricted part of our linguistic usage. The classification of words as parts of speech, intensive parsing, and syntactical practice, were used with enthusiasm as guides to clearer thinking and better expression of that thinking. But those who have been teaching English during the last quarter of a century have seen a most marked shift of attitude on the part of those who have been responsible for the education of pupils in the grades until it has become almost impossible to teach the older grammar in many elementary schools. It is not altogether surprising that this change of attitude on the part of the teachers should have taken place, since the scope of the older grammar was so restricted. Moreover, there has been a widening and intensification of study in almost every other field of intellectual interest.

Unfortunately, as it now appears, the study of English grammar has not been broadened in the more elementary courses to correspond with the advancement along other lines, but rather, grammar has been made a more servile and slightly disreputable handmaiden to composition, both oral and written. Only so much grammar is now tolerated in many schools as is

deemed absolutely essential to the expression of thinking, -- and thinking for which the teacher seeks inspiration elsewhere, in political, scientific, historical, and other sources. In other words, the study of English grammar has become almost altogether a means to an end, and the English language is no more a thing to be studied for its own sake (20:486).

There has been, however, a more hopeful trend in the study of English since 1900. As a result of eliminating formal grammar from the course of study, pupils entered the secondary schools knowing little if anything about grammatical terms. As a result, instructors in the secondary schools and colleges began to advocate the teaching of English grammar (20:487).

In view of the needs that have become so apparent and the trends that have been somewhat less clearly apparent to the average student of English, it seems that we have reached a point where something constructive should be done to improve the English situation in American education. It may be that some formal grammar should be replaced in the elementary schools (20:488).

According to Arthur G. Kennedy, ("The Study of Current English," English Journal, June, 1933) a course in English should be as comprehensive as possible. There should be embedded within it a compact from the material of the older grammars relating to the classification, inflection, and syntactical use of words, and also additional subject-matter relating to pronunciation, spelling, the derivation of words, the growth and change of meanings, etc.

We have taught grammar in the past, in its narrowness; we have studied pronunciation and spelling; and occasionally we have offered a very simple

and elementary study of the etymology of words. But no very systematic effort has been made to gather up these and several other phases of the study of English grammar and organize them into a well-rounded, unified, and comprehensive course. Indeed, it is not easy to do, for so much has poured in from the presses during the past years that one scarcely knows what to include and what to omit from the treatment of the subject of English (20:489).

In recent years a number of recognized authorities in the field of curriculum building have given much thought to the matter of what should be included and what should be omitted from a course of study in English grammar. One of the earliest studies sought to discover the grammatical errors made by pupils in their written compositions. Each grammatical shortcoming discovered, obviously, pointed to a needed form of instruction. It revealed a difficulty which general undirected language experience had not overcome, and which must, therefore, be consciously dealt with by the teacher. In this manner, Professor Charters organized a course of study in grammar based upon the grammatical errors of school children found in a Kansas City investigation (1:45).

Many other investigations have been made to discover the errors of pupils. Guiler (W.S.) (24) analyzed 1,731 pieces of "free writing" of pupils in Grades II-IX inclusive, to reveal the language needs as a basis for instruction in English. Johnson (Roy Ivan) (24) made a study of 2,400 letters to lay the foundation for a composition curriculum adapted to the pupils' needs and to social aims. Norberg (Lester M.) (24) presents a course in grammar based on the actual needs of pupils as revealed by tests.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of the present investigation is to determine the nature of the errors in grammar (including punctuation and capitalization) in the written compositions of sixth, seventh, and eighth grade pupils in certain elementary schools under the writer's supervision. It is hoped that in this manner a more logical basis for a course of study in English grammar in these elementary schools might be evolved.

The writer has taught in the grades of the elementary schools for a number of years and has experienced much of the change from the so-called old-fashioned grammar to the modern curricula which frequently tend to eliminate formal grammar. The teaching of grammar appeals to the writer for several reasons: (1) No other subject in the elementary course of study excels grammar in the opportunity it affords for reflection; (2) It requires close and careful thinking to discern the attributes of each element of a sentence, or the value and function of each word; (3) Grammar can be taught so as to call for exact observation, comparison, and judgment; (4) When pupils enter high school and begin the study of a foreign language, they find that knowledge of English grammar often aids them better to understand these languages. A pupil who enters high school without a knowledge of grammar is placed at a disadvantage in all his English work (20:486).

The writer will discuss in some detail the present and past status of grammar as revealed in the literature of the field in Chapter II. In

Chapter III the various theories, past and present, relating to the construction of curricula in English grammar will be discussed. A summary of investigations made by educators in the field of the writer's problem will be presented in Chapter IV. The writer's own investigation will be reported in detail in Chapter V. The concluding Chapter will present a summary of such conclusions and applications as the writer's research seems to warrant.

CHAPTER II

THE STATUS OF GRAMMAR

During the past fifteen or twenty years there has been a growing conviction that something must be done toward improving the speaking and writing of the children in the elementary school. Since the more universal need is for better expression, oral and written, one of the first steps toward improvement has been the placing of greater emphasis on oral and written English in the schools (10:329).

In making critical surveys of the methods of teaching grammar, English instructors have noted that formal or technical grammar apparently did not carry over into either oral or written composition. Because the study of grammar did not seem to affect the pupils' speech or writing, English teachers in many elementary schools practically eliminated formal grammar from the course of study. As a result, pupils entered the secondary schools, knowing little if anything, about sentence, about sentence construction or grammatical terms; teacher and pupil had no common language, grammatically speaking. It seemed useless for the teacher to point out to a pupil, who had never heard of a participle, his error in using a "dangling participle." The suggestion that he should make a subject and a verb agree had little effect; he was unable to recognize the subject of a sentence or to tell a verb from an adverb. When the pupils in the tenth

grade were told that they could change the emphasis in a sentence by transposing the subordinate clause, they were puzzled because they did not know whether a subordinate clause is a mark of punctuation or something connected with a new system of penmanship (10:525).

Year after year pupils came into their classes with no previous knowledge of grammar. Instructors in secondary schools developed a sentiment strongly in favor of old-fashioned grammar. They argued that it would be awkward to teach a boy to drive an automobile who spoke and understood only a language foreign to the teacher; it was equally awkward to teach a boy to use the English language correctly and effectively if grammatical terms were alien to him.

The new grammar advocate was more simple than the old time technical grammar. Many fine distinctions and different phases of the subject were ignored in the modified form. In many schools this type of grammar was restored to a place in the curriculum. Where formal grammar had been taught more recently in the upper grades of the elementary school or in the first years of the secondary schools, it has been this simple modified type that predominated (10:526).

Experience with this modified grammar has not been entirely satisfactory. There is still a general belief among both educators and the public that something must be done to improve instruction in grammar so that the classroom study of the subject will function in the everyday speaking and writing of the pupils.

Because the study of grammar often proves difficult some advocate omitting it from the elementary school curriculum and introducing it in

the secondary school. Others maintain that the subject is as easy for the elementary pupils to understand as is mathematics or any other study in the curriculum that requires reasoning ability. They say that a pupil is as likely to make use of his knowledge of sentence structure as he is to use his knowledge of grammar, he can also prosper without a book knowledge of history and geography; if he can get all the grammar he needs from his daily contacts, he can also get all the geography and history that he needs in the same manner. Grammar has been the "goat" because it has been assumed to be more difficult to teach successfully than the other subjects in the course of study (10:528).

Almost every recent textbook that includes grammar sets forth in its preface an argument favoring "grammar lessons restricted to simple forms and principles which function in forming correct habits of spoken and written expression"(10:529). That the author's aims are worthy is not disputed; the arguments for teaching only functional grammar are convincing; the brief treatments the textbooks offer look adequate. The authors of these textbooks in their attempts to simplify the subject of grammar have succeeded in offering the pupil only admirable outlines and introductions. Instead of "bit by bit" doses gradually administered during several years, huge doses have been given to the pupils, and these potions they have been expected magically to assimilate. The result has been that the study has seemed difficult and consequently uninteresting. The old method confused the pupil with many details and technicalities. The newer way is often equally confusing because a brief acquaintance with a few facts does not give the pupil enough knowledge of these facts to enable him to

make use of them. He has nothing lasting and carries with him as a result of his study only a hazy memory of grammatical terms (10:529-530).

Past Status of Grammar

English grammar was considered an art up to about 1850, but since then it has been looked upon as a science. An examination of the definitions given by the outstanding grammarians, reveals the fact that in its earlier stages grammar was the art of correctly speaking the English language. Grammar as applied to written English, on the other hand, was considered to be a secondary matter. This was due, no doubt, to the fact that the writing of English was done by professional writers instead of those from the masses.

There can be discerned at least five outstanding periods in the aims of teaching English grammar, and in the methods used, as indicated by grammarians. Up to 1823 grammars were merely imitations of Latin grammars. The conventional divisions of orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody were adhered to, and the order of the declensions and conjugations were slowly copied. The technicalities and mechanical devices which characterize Latin grammar were carried over. Moreover, the inductive method of the Latin grammar, that is, proceeding from the part to the whole, was adopted. The aim was to master each division of grammar thoroughly, both backward and forward, illustrations and all, until the grasp of it was mechanically perfect. During this period little or no thought was given to the practical application of the rules learned. In fact, the grammars were literally memorized from cover to cover, and he was the best grammarian who could quote from memory the greatest amount of the conventional texts. It is

true that in following this system, the student of English grammar mastered his subject, -- and this is probably the strong point of the method; but he was not taught to make any practical application of the knowledge acquired, which, in the light of the modern methods, is distinctly a deficiency.

The second method of teaching English grammar in American schools was that of parsing and correcting false syntax. An examination of the texts used during the time from 1820 to 1850 reveals that this was the conventional method used and recommended by the leading educators of the day. As a matter of fact, the parsing and false syntax method is another Latinized form of teaching grammar. It must be stated, however, that this method was not adhered to for the purpose of preserving the system of teaching Latin grammar; rather it was used in teaching English grammar as a means of counteracting the system of memorizing the text, and also as a means of showing the student the necessity of making practical application of the great body of rules and facts acquired by the memorizing process. Both writers and teachers were insisting that the students must not only memorize rules, but that they must thoroughly understand and apply those rules and principles.

With the coming of Samuel S. Greene's "The Analysis of Sentences", in 1847, a change in the purpose of teaching English grammar was strongly advocated. The aim now became to present English grammar as a science rather than as an art, and the method used was that of analyzing given sentences and constructing original ones (32:41-42).

By 1873 a new idea was being advocated, -- that of teaching English

grammar incidental to exercises in written and spoken English. This period may be called the transitional period from the study of English grammar to that of English composition. The aims and methods of teaching English grammar were subjected to sharp investigations. Less attention was paid to grammar as such. Many of the former classifications and much of the grammatical nomenclature were being changed, or discarded altogether. Various new methods of teaching the subject were introduced, and were used side by side with existing ones. Analyzing, parsing, and diagramming seem to have been favorite devices, although there was much discussion pro and con on the part of educational leaders and theorists regarding the usefulness of these new methods in the educational program. It should be noticed that during this period the size and scope of English grammars were greatly narrowed down. In fact, the bulky, encyclopedic publications, such as Gould Brown's "Grammar of English Grammars", were often replaced by thin booklets, claiming to present only the essentials of English grammar. Elaborate manuals of diagramming and analyzing also made their appearance (32:43-44).

Thought gave way to rule and rote: the means became the end; the things of greater amount gave way to things of less importance; essentials were lost sight of in the memorizing of definitions, rules, declensions and conjugations, and much formal word-parsing work. Some years later educators asked themselves if the object seemed to be to teach the children to use their mother tongue correctly, and that object was manifestly attained. Children who had been drilled through grade after grade and could formulate the rules of correct speech, analyze most intricate sen-

tences, were found at the end of their course to make egregious mistakes in actual speech and writing. These reactionaries at once set to work to remedy this defect by doing away with technical grammar as a distinct or separate subject. The object for which it had been taught, they claimed could be more easily, more efficiently secured by combining technical grammar with the study of language. It was heralded as a panacea of all ills of the world grammatical, and that there were ills the language as it is spoken today only too clearly proves. What meant to be a happy blending of technical grammar and language, turned out to be a change from one fanaticism to another, the fanaticism of grammar to the fanaticism of language.

Much has been said against the old views of and practices of formal grammar. With all its follies the discredited grammar drills did accomplish some results, even though frequently at a ridiculous high cost. At least it burned indelibly into the pupil's mind the fact that there is a right and a wrong in the use of one's native tongue; and that it is a vital and functional part of good manners to be canonical in grammatical usage. It did help the formation of a sort of linguistic pride. All the weary, dreary parsing did do something toward the promition of a sense of speech and a strict habit of mental analysis. To analyze and to parse was in some degree to think.

Many just objections have been brought against the old system of parsing:

1. Parsing was carried to such an extreme, especially in connection with certain classics that all appreciation of literature was taken away.

2. English adjectives were said to agree with their nouns, for instance after the fashion of the Latin grammarians.

3. Parsing fostered the un-English idea that each word was somehow created as one or another part of speech, instead of being, as is often the case, a symbol sometimes capable of several uses under several sets of circumstances (41:557).

The style of grammar study in a foreign language which was almost exclusively in vogue before 1880 was to assign -- rarely to develop -- a lesson consisting of a list of new words contained in the lesson, the rules covering the particular phenomena in hand, and two sets of sentences for translation into and from the foreign language. It was customary to use no other book than the grammar before this was finished, or nearly so. As a result grammatical study became monotonous, and the grammar was not well learned. Interest was lacking and there was not enough application and practical work. Not too much grammar was taught, but it was taught too poorly.

All protests against this kind of work, and they were numerous, availed little before the last decades of the nineteenth century, when under the influence of a greater realism and utilitarianism there went up a demand for the more efficient so-called direct methods. Thus the natural method, was introduced in the United States by Heness and Sauveur. It failed of adoption by the school men, however, on account of its lack of system in teaching the grammar. It paid little attention to grammar on the ground that children pay but little attention to it and finally acquire the usage prevalent among persons with whom they associate. But today we know that

the practice offered in the classroom is not sufficient to impress a good usage upon the learner unless the amount to be learned is strictly limited and thoroughly drilled in well-planned exercises.

In the eighties, the school men of Germany took up the reform after Douin had already blazed the way with his series system and had given a great impetus toward a direct method.

Since more practical work was desired, grammar work had to be restricted. There arose the cry: Away with grammar! But after some trial of this program, it was shown to be unwise, and grammar now became not "the queen" but the "handmaiden" in modern language study (16:186-188).

The Present Status of Grammar

Among the greater unsettled questions connected with the study of English none is more unsettled than the grammar question. What place shall the study of formal grammar have in our school curriculum? Shall it come into the grammar grades, or await the high school? What emphasis shall we put upon it? How far shall it be carried? What language lessons should precede it? -- and so on. In the recent action against this old-fashioned grammar fiend, opinion has swerved to the extreme of excluding formal grammar altogether from the elementary school and of ranking it as a high school subject. This view still widely obtains; it is that of Professor Carpenter, expressed in his recent *Principles of English grammar* (7:204). It is also that of the Committee of Ten, who held that formal grammar should not be taken up earlier than the thirteenth year; and that even then it should not be pursued as a separate study longer than is necessary to familiarize the pupil with the main principles. Probably

a single year (not more than three hours a week) will be sufficient. Moreover, the teaching of it (7:204) should be as far as possible inculcated, and should be brought into close relation with the pupils' work in reading and composition.

On the whole, however, the present trend of opinion rather favors the study of it in some form or other in the upper grammar grades. The tendency toward a recognition of the necessity of grammar in the elementary grades is indirectly borne out by the elaboration of a substitute for the grammar textbook in the form of the language lesson, which tends more and more to assume the character of nothing less than a new type of formal grammar itself, developed, it is true, in connection with the theory and practice of composition, but none the less grammar on that account. On the completion of any of the typical series of language lessons recently published, the child is already in possession of all the leading principles of formal grammar.

Reviewing briefly the salient arguments of the discussion, which will explain the present status of the subject, let us first ask, What was the meaning of the reaction against the study of formal grammar of the Lindley Murray type? The main count against it was that it failed of practical results; failed as a communicable art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety, to quote the Murray definition (7:205). The endless formalities of rule and precept were found to be wasteful burdens of knowledge unrelated to practice.

Valueless as an aid to the art of writing, what could be said of it as a science revealing the structure and growth of language and the logic

of speech? Sir Joshua Fitch, in his "Lectures on Teaching", puts the point thus: "In Latin forms you find this (logic of language) in so far only as it finds expression in the inflections and forms of words expressed with some fitness and scientific accuracy. In English it is expressed in an unscientific and very incomplete way; -- in short, of pure grammar there is very little in the English language (7:206).

We have finally abandoned the old view, which regarded grammar as the art of correct speaking and writing in favor of the view that grammar is the science underlying that art -- a knowledge of which aids the art -- and is involved in the conscious elaboration of its principles and technique (7:207-209).

With scarcely an exception, the language books in current use introduce the elements of grammar in the intermediate grades. By the time the pupils reach the fifth grade they have learned that a sentence is composed of subject and predicate, and a strong class may have learned to distinguish modifiers and connectives. In the sixth and seventh grades they learn the parts of speech, what a phrase is, what a clause is, that phrases and clauses are used as parts of speech, and that a verb should agree with its subject in person and number. If the class has received the right kind of instruction, there will have been learned the more elementary facts of grammar in connection with the regular language work by the time the seventh grade is finished.

To many pupils, especially boys, grammar is thoroughly distasteful, and the teacher who is able to discover and remove the causes for this dislike will accomplish much for her pupils. The reasons for this attitude

most frequently given are, "I can't see any use in studying grammar" and "I can't understand it." All too often the teacher attempts to frown these reasons down, but this is a serious mistake. The reasons given express the boy's honest convictions and he is no more to be blamed for not taking an interest in a subject which he cannot understand and in which he sees no value than are his elders for their lack of interest.

The dislike for grammar can usually be traced to two sources -- its introduction before the pupils are prepared for it, making it impossible for them to understand the subject as presented, and failure to teach the subject so as to enable the pupils to see its vital connection with his common speech. Concerning the first of these causes, it should be said that formal grammar as a distinct study has no place below the eighth grade. Formal grammar requires a maturity of judgement not attained by seventh grade pupils. Moreover, two or three lessons a week for a year are all that is necessary to teach as much grammar as pupils need. The second cause may be removed by studying the actual language used by the pupils in conversation (18:229).

In England, France, and Germany, where schools must often struggle to give pupils speaking a dialect a clear idea of the usage of the literary language, the chief aim of grammar is still generally thought to be inculcating of syntactical and inflectional "correctness", largely on the now greatly increased instruction in composition and in literature. We look upon grammar as a means both for giving the young some knowledge of the facts of language, and for thus training them in the analysis and structure of sentences.

The grammar of our language is tending in the direction of greater simplicity -- a few distinctions and more liberal application of grammatical rules in everyday speech, so as to give greater freedom to colloquial language. "A grammarless tongue", English is often called and so it seems when compared with German, Latin and the various Roman languages founded upon Latin; for these are all less advanced than English and consequently far more complicated in their grammar.

Distinctive forms for the feminine gender are being employed less and less. The subjunctive mode has almost disappeared from use except in a few common constructions. The long involved sentences which characterized the older writers have gone out of style, giving way to a large extent to short, crisp sentences, easy to construct and easy to comprehend. It is a small wonder, then, in view of its marvelous flexibility and the unequalled simplicity of its grammar, that English is today more widely spoken than any other language of a civilized race (41:2557).

Progressive teachers of English hold divergent and almost irreconcilable views on the place, the functions, and the ultimate worth of grammar as a subject in the elementary curriculum. The camp is divided into three factions. The first justifies the traditional emphasis on formal grammar with its terminology, classifications, rules of syntax and analysis -- all to be taught in separate periods with as much correlation as can naturally be introduced. The second group insists that formal grammar must be ~~eliminated~~ and the necessary laws of language be taught through the correction of errors that children make in their written and oral speech. The third view on the teaching of grammar is the scientific analysis of speech,

but it has faith in the teaching of those facts of grammar that can be related to the child's needs. This last school would teach grammar as part of the course in composition; would have every lesson in grammar arise in errors committed by members of the class; would eliminate all those elements of formal grammar that cannot be applied directly by the child in the process of improving speech, and would teach grammar incidentally, not in set periods. The reaction to formal grammar is not a temporary attitude accompanying changing conceptions in teaching, it is a vigorous protest against abuses that have characterized most of the teaching of grammar (21:305).

The indictments brought against current procedures in the teaching of grammar are many and grave according to Klapper (21:306):

1. The old boast, "Grammar teaches how to write and speak a language correctly," has been disproven, not only by practical results observed in actual teaching but by a deeper analysis of the relation that exists between speech and grammar. Every teacher can bring evidence to prove that proficiency in grammar is no guarantee of equal or approximate proficiency in composition, and vice versa. A child, whose compositions leaves little to be desired, may score failure in grammar, while his neighbor, well versed in the intricacies of verbal forms and the rules of agreement in grammar may write English that is devoid of all application of this technical knowledge. Exercises in composition are creative and essentially synthetic; therefore, ability in one of these forms of language study is not necessarily carried over to the other.

2. In most classrooms, there is little or no relation between the

courses in grammar and in composition for a given term. In schools organized on a departmental schedule in the last two or three years it is usual to assign the teaching of grammar to one teacher and the teaching of composition to another. These teachers proceed independently, the one teaching children the nominative absolute, the other struggling with the class in the hope of breaking the habit of using dependent clauses for complete sentences. It is advisable to assign to one teacher all the subjects that are grouped under the head of English, so that every natural correlation will be introduced and thus the work will be given a unity of aim which it will otherwise lack.

Grammar as outlined in many courses of study and in textbooks written for elementary schools abounds in sterile verbal subtleties. Thus, the child is taught to keep gerund and gerundive apart. The word sailing in the sentence, "Sailing a boat is great sport," must be distinguished from the word sailing in, "The sailing of the ship was scheduled for midnight." True, the one word has an element of action in it while the other has not; the one word cannot be introduced by the article the, while the other can; but when all these distinctions are noted and the proper names applied, in what vital way has the child's speech been affected? The dative object and the direct object are now taught in many schools. This terminology is absolutely essential in language like German and Latin, but in English it serves only to multiply unnecessary classification. What is gained by calling hat the direct object and me the dative object in the sentence, "John gave me the hat." The old form, "Objective case," answers the purpose because in English there is no difference in the form of words in the

accusative or in the dative case. Such an unwarranted increase in terminology reduces grammar to a sterile study of formalism in language (21:307).

4. The prevailing method of teaching grammar is another cause of the discredit which has been cast upon the subject. In the teacher's endeavors to have children master an ever-increasing terminology and ever-growing classification, memory drills are greatly emphasized. Recitations are given over exclusively to reciting set classifications, stereotyped repetitions of I, my or mine, me, we, our or ours, us, or of I love, you love, he or she loves, we love, you love, they love, etc., is still to be heard in most schools. It seems that we have not yet learned that mastery of elements, isolated in an arbitrary list, is no guarantee of ability to use these very forms in natural context.

5. Another very serious criticism that must be urged against current courses in grammar is the undue variety of terminology. The market is flooded with a variety of books that find their way into school. Most of these books repeat the same limitations and abuses, but each one of them is justified in its appearance by a new system of names for the various elements in grammar. No attempts are made to reach any degree of uniformity in the terminology; each book insists on its own system, and each author is a law unto himself. What is the inevitable result? Different schools use different books, and even the various classes in one school frequently do not use the same series of books. The pupils become hopelessly confused by the array of imposing terms. As the children pass from one school to another and from one class to another, they find the new teacher using a terminology unknown to them. What wonder that children

leave school ignorant of the basic terms in grammar!

According to Carpenter the study of formal grammar is objectionable because:

1. The learning of a multitude of rules does not help the pupils to speak and write correctly.
2. The philosophic distinctions of formal grammar are meaningless except to the advanced student.
3. Exercises in the parsing and analysis of literature tend to give one a distaste both for literature and for grammar.
4. The mental discipline supposed to be secured through the study of grammar may also be secured in other ways, as is shown by many scientific or business men, who have been taught by observation and experience to think clearly and accurately.
5. Whatever facts about the language are necessary for a broad education may be readily acquired through familiarity with good literature.
6. Whatever knowledge of syntactical laws is necessary for information, for mental discipline or linguistic training, can be more readily attained through Latin.
7. English is a grammarless tongue (5:193-196).

We have seen that these indictments against the teaching of grammar are serious, but they do not disclose weaknesses inherent in the subject itself, or any defects that cannot be remedied. Proper organization of the course of study and a more pedagogical teaching procedure will remove these abuses in the teaching of grammar. We must turn, therefore, to a consideration of the values of grammar as an elementary school study and

the principles governing the methods of teaching the subject (21:309).

A definite formulation of the values of grammar will set up for us definite aims that may be achieved in the teaching of the subject. The aims become standards, in terms of which we may judge the efficiency of our methods of teaching and the wisdom of the course of study that is taught. The values of grammar can be grouped under five heads, viz., the practical, the disciplinary, the literary, the cultural, and the preparatory values.

1. The Practical Value of Grammar: A Guide to Correct Speech. An investigation into the reasons why teachers and principals believe that grammar should be taught showed that the first justification was that "grammar is a guide to correct speech." But we must not read too much into this function of grammar. It was pointed out in a previous connection that a knowledge of grammar does not guarantee correct speech. Grammar is the science of language, and serves as an aid in correct speech in the same way as the knowledge of the science of any medium of expression serves the art of expression. A knowledge of logic does not guarantee logical thought, but it does give the student a means of detecting logical fallacies and a standard in terms of which he can judge the results of his own thinking. So, too, grammar teaches us not to speak English correctly, but to understand it.

The teaching of grammar is justified only when children learn to use it for purposes of self-criticism and correction. Thus, the child who learns the functions of verbs and participles may still write in his composition "When he seen what I done," but in the period of correction he

underlines seen and done and uses verb forms. The wise teaching of grammar seeks to make correction of all speech, not arbitrary changes according to the dictates of the teacher, but an intelligent process of self-criticism (21:310).

2. The Disciplinary Values of Grammar: Properly taught, grammar is a means of developing powers of concentration, reason, abstraction, and analysis in verbal relationships. Grammar has been called the logic of elementary education. Laurie tells us "Grammar is logic in the concrete and language in the abstract -- The boy who is intelligently analyzing the process of thought, and is a logician without knowing it." Max Muller expresses the disciplinary value of grammar as follows:

"Grammar is logic of speech even as logic is the grammar of reason."

A few illustrations will readily show that the disciplinary value of grammar is not overstated. The reason, the concentration, and the analysis required of a school child in perceiving the differences between "He has been gone an hour," "I want him" and "I want him to be a soldier," are as intense as the mental activity of the college student who distinguished extension from intension in logic or perception from conception in psychology (21:311).

3. Grammar as an Aid in Literary Interpretation." It has often been asserted by the sponsors for formal grammar that a knowledge of grammatical elements and functions is of great aid in literary interpretation and expressive reading. In the sentence, "That book that you saw belongs to me," the relative emphasis on each that and the correct phrasing may prove perplexing to the young mind. But the recognition of the grammatical function

of each "that" indicates clearly that the demonstrative adjective and not the relative pronoun should be stressed in reading; the feeling for the clause which comes from a study of grammar prompts correct phrasing. Similarly, passages are encountered in all reading where thought is not clear because the grammatical relations or functions of certain phrases and clauses are not perceived.

This belief, firmly rooted in many minds, that a knowledge of grammar is a direct aid in literary interpretation, was subjected to a test by F.S. Hoyt. The results of examinations given in composition, grammar, and literary interpretation were tabulated in comparative lists. They prove that proficiency in any one of these three branches of the study of English is no index of the proficiency that will be attained in the other two. A cursory and superficial analysis of the marks of any class in grammar and in literary interpretation will serve to re-enforce the conclusions based on this experimental evidence. Hoyt's findings are precisely what one would naturally anticipate, for the mental attitudes and activities in grammar in literary interpretation are so different that the excellence developed in one subject need not necessarily influence the proficiency attained in the other. Only when awkward or unusual construction of sentences hinders acquisition of meaning will a knowledge of grammatical functions aid in literary interpretation. But in the elementary schools such situations are not the rule, and the child's grasp of grammatical function is so meager that it is of little service in tracing the relationship among clauses and phrases in sentences whose construction is not lucid (21:312-313).

4. Cultural or Conventional Value of Grammar: The teaching of grammar may be justified on the ground of social expediency. Many facts are taught, not because they have intrinsic worth, but because they form part of that knowledge stock that society expects its citizen of culture to possess. The terminology of grammar adds useful words like modify, independent, dependent, mode, tense, imperative, superlative, clause -- words that enrich vocabulary and add to expressional powers.

But while the conventional demands must be considered they must not become the sole governing factors. The merest superficial knowledge of grammar will satisfy the conventional demands. In the teaching of those elements of grammar that can be applied by the child in his endeavors at self-criticism and correction, these cultural values of the subject can be attained. This conventional justification need not guide either in teaching the subject or in organizing a course of study, for it is a result of teaching grammar by any method and through any course (21:313).

5. Preparatory Value of Grammar: The final value of grammar lies in the fact that it is a necessary preparation for future studies. Ignorance of grammar makes work in rhetoric very difficult. Teachers of foreign languages in secondary schools complain that progress is impeded by the children's lack of basic knowledge of English grammar. If we take Goethe's dictum seriously, "He who knows only one tongue, does not know that well," the preparatory value of grammar must be regarded seriously. But when we recall the high rate of elimination in the elementary schools, it is obvious that this preparatory value justifies the teaching of grammar only to ten per cent of the school population -- those who reach the high school

and pursue the study of rhetoric or foreign languages (21:314).

Men today who have studied the question closely are not satisfied with the results. All seem to agree that in the first period technical grammar was over-emphasized. However, the pendulum they say, has swung to the opposite extreme. They also point to the confusion that exists today because of the multiplicity of texts and their variety of terms. There is not a month but a new textbook is in the field with a number of lucid but hertofore unused terms. It is clear that much effort ought to be made to arrive at some definite conclusions which will make the successful teaching of English grammar in our school reasonably possible (12:235-245).

Concluding Remarks

Since 1850 grammar has been considered a science and not an art. The period from 1900 to about 1920 may be called the period of English composition with English grammar receiving little or no systematic study. English grammar was considered valuable only in so far as it aided composition, oral and written. During this period, English grammar was taken out of the course of many schools all over. Within the last decade English grammar is again taking its place in the course of study, and those engaged in educational work are coming to realize more clearly perhaps than ever before, that the study of English grammar is indispensable, for it furnishes the skeleton which supports all effective work involving the use of English (32:43).

CHAPTER III

CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY

SCHOOL GRAMMAR

In recent years school men have been giving more and more attention to the problem of curriculum construction in the field of English grammar. Various theories relative to curriculum construction in English grammar have been developed as a consequence.

Notable among these theories are the following:

1. . Since it is evident that not all the facts with regard to the grammar of modern English can be or should be taught in the elementary school, only those facts should be chosen which are (a) important to a clear understanding of sentence structure; (b) useful; and (c) comprehensible to the children (29:136).

2. In the lower grades every effort should be made to correct grammatical errors and to fix right forms by imitation and drill, with little or no attempt at explanation of reasons or at classifications of errors. The important point is to make the right form sound right and the wrong form sound wrong (29:136).

3. A few new forms should be assigned to each grade for mastery. A careful study of prevalent grammatical mistakes should be made for each locality, and the few most common errors should be carefully distributed for correction in the several grades. A pupil in the sixth grade, then,

should be held rigidly to account for forms supposedly mastered in the five preceding grades, and so on.

4. Since imitation and drill on a few forms are often insufficient to overcome the handicap of a pupil's home influences, reasons, explanations, classifications, and rules, should be given to the older pupils; that is, scientific grammar used as a tool should help to govern practice when pupils are old enough to understand it (29:137).

5. Scientific grammar should be truly scientific as far as it goes. That is, no fact should be taught until it can be taught truly and in sufficient relation to needs of expression to mean something (29:137).

6. Children below the seventh grade are as a rule not sufficiently mature to deal with language facts scientifically, without unwise expenditure of time. All the necessary grammar can be taught in one year, or even in part of a year; but since this grammar should be closely and constantly related to the composition work, it is better to distribute it over the seventh and eighth, or, in the intermediate or junior high schools, the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades (29:137).

7. In explaining the phenomena of the English language there is a logical order of procedure from basic facts to those that depend upon them, an order which cannot be changed without some sacrifice of clear understanding. While seeming to grow out of the composition work, the study of grammatical facts perhaps should be planned to progress from fundamental ideas to those that are built upon them. Yet development in language should not be subordinated to the sequence of the science (29:137).

8. Since in an analytic language like English the importance of the

sentence to the meaning of the word can hardly be exaggerated, the sentence should be the unit of such a language (29:138).

9. To be of practical value, any study must be thorough. Therefore, since there is not time for all the facts, it is best to dwell at length on the larger facts of sentence structure minutiae (29:138).

10. No fact need be taught that has not some direct bearing on the use of good English. Too often, however, it seems to be assumed that the only practical grammar has to do with the forms of words, and that the only test of its efficiency is its influence on correctness of oral speech. All knowledge that may be applied to the construction of good sentences, to proper punctuation, as well as to the choice of right forms of words, and that does not crowd out more valuable knowledge, is practical (29:138).

11. The study of the parts of speech as such may well be limited to such facts as have to do with the choice of right forms. If this plan is followed, complete parsing will generally be found as impossible as it is unnecessary (29:138).

12. Chamberlain says: (4:5) "The task of building a curriculum in English grammar involves three distinct activities, each the basis for a separate investigation; first, an analysis of the problems; second, studies of activity analysis which seek to discover the demands in English, such investigations to determine the function of English grammar; third, the evaluation of grading subject-matter which will best attain the aims, and its determination by classroom experiment. These three steps may be preceded, of course, by a survey of earlier investigations in order to discover what is valuable."

The above twelve theories relative to curriculum construction are fairly representative of the various experts and workers in the field. It will be the aim of the writer to discuss each theory in some detail and to present the arguments and evidence for and against the same which appear in the literature studied by the writer.

1. Since it is evident that not all the facts with regard to the grammar of modern English can be or should be taught in the elementary school, only those facts should be chosen which are (a) important to a clear understanding of sentence structure; (b) useful; and (c) comprehensible to the children (29:136).

This principle relates to the clear understanding of sentence structure. According to Klapper, in grammar, as in most subjects, an analytic-synthetic method is the rational procedure in teaching, but a cursory examination of most of our elementary books on the subject shows the reverse form of instruction. The noun, the verb, the pronoun, the subject, the predicate, are the topics emphasized in the initial pages of the textbook in English grammar. The mastery of these elements prepares the child for the comprehension of the sentence. But logical though this procedure may be, it is hardly psychological. If grammar is to be made rational and necessary in the eyes of the child, we must begin with that part of grammar which is related to the child's needs. The "point of contact" is the sentence. Since the child strives constantly to express thought, the sentence, the unit of thought expression must be mastered first. There must be an emphasis on sentence structure before the parts of speech are taught. The best method is to begin with the pupils' errors of sentence

structure due to omission of subject or predicate, or both. Pupils should be required to find the subject and predicate of given useful sentences; to supply a variety of subjects for a given predicate; to supply many predicates for a set subject; to indicate sentences in a paragraph in which there are no capitals and no periods. Have pupils change faulty incomplete sentences so that they would have a subject and predicate (21:319,323,326).

According to Carpenter, Baker and Scott (5:129-130), one of the first essentials to both clear thinking and clear expression is a sense of form of the sentence. It is a unit of thought as well as form of thought. A sense of the form of the sentence has, of course, been emerging from the broken speech of infancy; and the same inductive process will continue to make it clearer in the primary grades. Helped by the teacher, with such questions as "What did you say about this thing?" or "What was it you said about this?", the conception will grow more rapidly. By the third year in school, children can be taught definitely that the sentence has two parts, subject and predicate. By the fifth, at least, they can learn to separate these parts from one another in complete sentences, and to see that a compound sentence has two or more of each of these parts, though it would probably not be worth while to introduce the names of complex and compound. The immediate purpose of this instruction is not grammar, though it prepares the way for grammar as a later study, but composition -- composition viewed as above, as clear thinking and clear expression. The knowledge of the structure of the sentence is almost as a necessary condition to such critical questioning of thought and expression as the teacher must do in any adequate treatment of written work. The clearing up of obscure relation-

ships, the testing of hazy conceptions, can be facilitated by such means. Moreover, the rhythm which is an element of good writing and to which the ears of children may be made sensitive, is better appreciated when they have a clear conception of the sentence.

Drill in the sentence, oral and written, should be a regular part of the language work. Imperfect sentences should be made better by the class. Ideas should be stated and restated in good form. Sentences incomplete in predicate or subject should be filled out, loose sentences made compact, etc.

2. In the lower grades every effort should be made to correct grammatical errors and to fix right forms by imitation and drill, with little or no attempt at explanation or reasons or at classifications of errors. The important point is to make the right form sound right and the wrong form sound wrong (29:136).

All the common grammatical errors found in children's oral speech and written work should be listed and arranged in a graded series. Such a tabulation would give about thirty to sixty common forms that children constantly misuse. Each grade, beginning with the second year, should have a definite number of errors assigned, three or four in the lower grades. With responsibility limited to five or six forms, each teacher could give such drill and application as would permanently undermine these common errors. Courses of study in cosmopolitan cities prescribe the systematic correction of typical errors for all grades beginning with second or third. See Klapper in "Teaching English in Elementary and Junior High Schools" (21:33-35).

The course of study, according to Rapeer (29:154), should provide for

the emphasis on a few troublesome facts for each grade and impress on the pupil the right form through repetition that it will at length be chosen unconsciously.

3. A few new forms should be assigned to each grade for mastery. A careful study of prevalent grammatical mistakes should be made for each locality, and the few most common errors should be carefully distributed for correction in the several grades. A pupil in the sixth grade, then, should be held rigidly to account for forms supposedly mastered in the five preceding grades, and so on.

In the higher grades five or six new forms should be mastered in addition to a review of those already studied. It is obvious that an occasional lesson on any correct form will not insure its use. Unremitting drill, well-graded and varied drills, are necessary to put the pupils on their guard against the influence of incorrect language. The curriculum-makers must remember that this part of the curriculum must be very flexible, for the language facts taught will be many, while in others it will reduce itself to only a few facts (21:26-34).

According to Bobbitt (*The Curriculum*) it is probable that actual procedure often looks too exclusively to the particular errors to be prevented or corrected and insufficiently to the deeper roots of the errors. In correcting or preventing grammatical errors, it is more important that one ardently desires to use correct English than that he memorize all the necessary technical information or have all his errors pointed out to him. Unless education can first develop this desire, all other more direct efforts must remain futile (2,249). Education here must therefore aim pri-

arily at fundamental valuations, appreciations of good language, a critical attitude toward and watchfulness over one's language, a social ambition to use language that is both effective and agreeable, a general social sensitiveness to linguistic errors and weaknesses of types that are to be eliminated, etc.

In the upper grades grammatical facts should be presented in a logical order from basic facts to those that rest upon them; but they should never be divorced from use. The subject-matter to be included should be determined partly by the kinds of mistakes made by pupils and partly by the application of a given grammatical notion to their improvement of their resources of expression. Every teacher of English in the grades should consider herself an investigator into the possibilities of teaching the right facts of grammar (29:155).

4. Since imitation and drill on a few forms are often insufficient to overcome the handicap of a pupil's home influences, reasons, explanations, classifications, and rules, should be given to the older pupils; that is, scientific grammar used as a tool should help govern practice when pupils are old enough to understand it (29:137).

When the classes of errors had been determined in the Charters and Miller study, (6:201) the problem shifted to that of determining upon the basis of these errors, the grammatical rules which should be taught. It was necessary first to change the form from the statement of the error to the statement of the rule broken. For instance, the simple statement of error, "Subject of the verb not in the nominative," had to be changed to a statement of the rule broken, namely, "The subject of a verb is in the nom-

inative case." In a more difficult example where the error read "Wrong forms of noun and pronoun," fifteen rules had to be listed. This procedure was carried out for all the errors and rules found to have been broken by the children.

At this point it was discovered that the children, if they were to understand and use the rules, must be taught certain grammatical definitions. For instance, to understand the rule "The subject of a verb is in the nominative case," a knowledge of subject and predicate, and therefore, of the sentence was necessary. In addition, a knowledge of subject involves acquaintance with noun and pronoun. Nominative case includes nouns and the nominative case in pronouns, and predicate involves verb.

Each of the twenty-nine classes of errors was treated in this way and finally a point was reached at which there lay before the investigators a complete list of grammatical rules and definitions necessary to correct the errors of the children of Kansas City (6:201).

As the teaching of English varies in written composition so the rules vary. There are many rules for teaching English grammar, but this subject has so many variations that only a few common rules can be agreed upon. But all the rules of teaching English grammar are included in this: "Do not teach all the old and conventional matter merely because it is old and conventional. And for the same reason do not throw it over," says Camp (3:240).

5. Scientific grammar should be truly scientific as far as it goes. That is, no fact should be taught until it can be taught truly and in sufficient relation to needs of expression to mean something (29:137).

According to Bobbitt, scientific method must consider both levels of the grammar curriculum. One task is to provide at the school as much as possible of a cultivated language atmosphere in which the children can live and receive unconscious training. This is really the task of major importance and provides the type of experience that should accomplish an ever-increasing proportion of the training. The other tasks are to make children conscious of their errors, to teach the grammar needed for correction or prevention, and to bring the children to put their grammatical knowledge to work in eliminating the errors. In proportion as the other type of experience is increased, this conscious training will play adminishing role (1:46).

6. Children below the seventhgrade are, as a rule, not sufficiently mature to deal with language facts scientifically, without unwise expenditure of time. All the necessary grammar can be taught in one year, or even in part of a year; but since this grammar should be closely and constantly related to the composition work, it is better to distribute it over the seventh and eighth, or, in the intermediate or junior high schools, the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades (29:137).

Leonard states (23:83) that we are all conscious, that children leave school before the end of grade eight in far greater numbers than we might desire and want them fully armored for life. Therefore, the curriculum should be built to equip the seventh and eighth grades with good, usable knowledge of English. And so when we write courses, we put into them all the things that we should like to see these pupils master. Even in writing lists of minimum essentials we have put in more "maximum possibilities"

than really achievable standards. The haphazard placement of these essentials and the shocking way in which first essentials are omitted from many courses is clearly presented in Miss Camenisch's excellent study, "Representative Course of Study in English" - English School Journal, Vol. 16, No. 4, April, 1927.

7. In explaining the phenomena of the English language there is a logical order of procedure from basic facts to those that depend upon them an order which cannot be changed without some sacrifice of clear understanding. While seeming to grow out of the composition work, the study of grammatical facts perhaps should be planned to progress from fundamental ideas to those that are built upon them. Yet development in language should not be subordinated to the sequence of the science (29:137).

Rapeer (29:154) says the course in Elementary School Grammar should be planned: (1) to emphasize the essentials for understanding; (2) to correlate very closely with practical language and composition work. This subject matter must be taught in such a way as to insure logical thinking about it, and to contribute as directly as possible to correct and effective use of the English language. The course of study should provide for thorough drill on a few troublesome forms in each grade and for constant application of grammatical knowledge in composition work.

One of the most deadening practices in the whole process of curriculum-making is to require the subject to be studied in the same way year after year. This procedure kills interest, thus keeping efficiency on the same level. In some cases, it actually lowers results, while such increases as may take place are very small. It must be recognized, however,

that some topics are of such importance as to warrant treatment in consecutive grades. Where this is true, care should be taken to see that they are taught in such a way as to involve the introduction of new material, a new emphasis, a new objective, a new approach, or a new standard of attainment. Some neglect of this criterion may be found in the field of English. It is customary in the elementary school to introduce into the course of study of English grammar a number of simple rules for punctuation. They will be included in the work for each succeeding grade through high school and, in many cases, through the freshman year in college. At the end of this period many students are still unable to use the proper punctuation in their own written work. Another good illustration is found in the teaching of English composition. Some fundamental principles, such as those of unity, coherence and emphasis, are introduced in the seventh grade. They are treated over a gain the same way in the senior high school. The result is that, in the country as a whole, there is an actual falling off in the average quality of compositions until the end of the tenth grade. Such conditions led some writers to state that English should not be required of all pupils in secondary schools, that it should not be taught as a separate subject. The solution of this is a revision of (17:145-147) the curriculum in the subject.

8. Since in an analytic language like English the importance of the sentence to the meaning of the word can hardly be exaggerated, the sentence should be as the unit of such a language (29:138).

The greatest contribution which grammar study can make is the mastery of the sentence, to unfailing recognition of the sentence unit in writing,

and the power of building clear, vigorous, and varied sentences and of interpreting their structure. It should, therefore, be the first and the chief purpose of this report, (The Committee of the Wisconsin English Teachers' Association) to present the topics of organized grammar study which contribute to sentence mastery in this large sense, and suggest when they should be presented. It is worth specific note that such thorough-going study as the Committee recommends for this purpose has doubtless other specific values in inducing conscious and logical thought about the forms and structures of sentences (9:213).

Exercises in the analysis of sentences give helpful insight into sentence structure, teach how to apply grammar to derive obscured meaning and train in logical thinking. But not all sentences are worthy of analysis. Only those sentences should be analyzed which: (1) are doubtful of comprehension and hence need analysis; or, (2) present constructions that allow for useful, synthetic drill. Thus, in the two sentences - The snow, falling thickly, the soldiers were blinded, and, The snow falling thickly, blinded the soldiers - the use of the commas and the change from the active to the passive voice, gives variety of sentence structure (21:334).

Marks of punctuation, for example, should be taught as the pupil's maturing sentence forms demand them. On the other hand, it is true that sentence forms are mastered to some extent in learning to punctuate, provided that the pupil does some thinking for himself in the process (19:63).

It is a curious fact, Leonard states, that teachers in the grade schools have been made so conscious of the need of comma punctuation that they everlastingly harp upon commas, but rarely work quietly and effective-

ly for the establishment of the sentence sense. As a result it is necessary in the high school to begin all over again from the beginning instead of working from a basis of the sentence unit recognized and mastered in use (23:87).

9. To be of practical value, any study must be thorough. Therefore, since there is not time for all the facts, it is best to dwell at length on the larger facts of sentence structure minutiae (29:138).

Stormzand (35:16) states that a "decent sentence" must be free from mistakes in spelling, grammar and punctuation. It must have individuality as far as its structure is concerned, so that all the sentences in a composition will not be just alike.

The short sentence is characteristic of conversation as it is presented in written form. We get our first hint as to proper material for the English grammar course in connection with the length of sentences. If one can write at all, he can write short sentences. And he can be made to feel the rhetorical values in clearness, directness, and force in the purposeful use of the short sentences (35:17-18).

The kinds of sentences used may be approached from two points of view, - the distinction on the basis of meaning, as declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory; or on the basis of form -- as simple, compound, or complex (35:19).

Stormzand concludes from his study that the pupil must gain a clear understanding of the difference between the three kinds of sentences as to form, - simple, compound, and complex.

The simple sentence being fundamental to the other forms, must be mastered thoroughly at the beginning, including working understanding of the ideas of the subject and predicate (35:26).

In respect to compound sentences, we have first the problem of overcoming the tendency of pupils to string two or more simple sentences into one. Making a more detailed analysis of the kinds of compound sentences appearing in his study, two classes of compound sentences were used most frequently, namely; those with two or more simple clauses and those with complex clauses.

The kinds of complex sentences used in the study furnish some valuable materials as a basis for grammar courses. In analyzing the complex sentences, eight different types were found: (1) those containing a single adverbial clause; (2) a single adjective clause; (3) a single noun clause; (4) compound or parallel dependent clauses; (5) complex or secondary dependent clauses; (6) complex interrogative; (7) complex imperative; (8) complex exclamatory sentences (35:26).

Declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences were used most frequently in his study. While the interrogative and exclamatory sentences may be given some attention because they involve the possibility of error in punctuation at the end of a sentence, their infrequent usage will hardly warrant making the forms very prominent in the course of study (35:26).

10. No fact need be taught that has not some direct bearing on the use of good English. Too often, however, it seems to be assumed that the only practical grammar has to do with the forms of words, and that the only test of its efficiency is its influence of correctness on oral speech.

All knowledge that may be applied to the construction of good sentences, to proper punctuation, as well as the choice of right forms of words, and that does not crowd out more valuable knowledge, is practical (29:138).

The Committee of the Wisconsin English Teachers' Association states that there are three points of view from which one can attack the making of a curriculum in English grammar. One is to include only the barest essentials; a second, advocated by almost no one now-a-days, is to include all the grammar that could have any remote bearing on correct usage or the construction of sentences; and a third method does not go to either of the extremes, but takes for emphasis the essentials to sentence mastery, and adds a very few principles which are helpful in making clear the minima.

English grammar is to be taught as the grammar of English. It is no reasonable part of its function to teach facts of general grammar which are not specifically true of the English language or essential to its mastery, which are of value only as a preparation for, or aid in, the study of foreign languages. The decision of the Committee on this point is fundamental to the entire discussion. It is, however, suggested that real mastery of the minimum essentials will furnish a firmer basis for work in other languages than the attempt usually made to teach a large amount of French or Latin grammar in English, where it does not fit and is not necessary (9:213).

11. The study of the parts of speech as such may well be limited to such facts as have to do with the choice of right forms. If this plan is followed, complete parsing will generally be found as impossible as it is unnecessary (28:138).

Practical material in the study of the parts of speech according to Rapeer (28:140-141) is chiefly: correct plurals; capitals for proper nouns; the possessive case; case forms of pronouns for the subject; predicate attribute; object of a transitive verb; object of a preposition; matters of agreement; choice of adjectives and adverbs; matters of tense; choice between past tense and past participle; choice between transitive and intransitive verb forms; choice between the transitive and intransitive verb forms; e.g., lie and lay; principal parts and conjugation of certain verbs (attach, ask, drag, drown), among those perfectly regular; correct formation of certain verb phrases (e.g., must have gone instead of must have went); right use of the passive voice.

Charter's curriculum based on grammatical errors includes the following parts of speech:

A. NOUNS

- (a) Definition
- (b) Inflection (1) number (2) case (possessive (3) gender slight use
- (c) Common and proper
- (d) Syntax - (1) subject of a verb (2) subjective complement (3) object of verb or preposition (4) the indirect object.
(These are chiefly of use as an aid in the understanding of pronouns.)

B. PRONOUNS

- (a) Definition
- (b) Personal pronouns (case and person, gender, number)

- (d) Relative pronouns (gender, case)

C. ADJECTIVES

- (a) Definition
- (b) Demonstrative adjectives
- (c) Cardinal and ordinal adjectives
- (d) The derivation of proper adjectives
- (e) Comparison of adjectives

D. VERBS

- (a) Definition
- (b) Transitive and intransitive verbs
- (c) Person
- (d) Number
- (e) Tense (particularly present, past, and past perfect)
- (f) Shall and will
- (g) Can and may
- (h) Mode (very slight)
- (i) Voice
- (j) Past participles
- (k) Infinitive (very slight) - split infinitive

E. ADVERBS

- (a) Definition
- (b) Comparison

F. PREPOSITIONS

- (a) Definition
- (b) Government of case

G. CONJUNCTIONS

- (a) Definition
- (b) Classification

H. MISPLACED MODIFIERS

I. DOUBLE NEGATIVES

J. SYNTACTICAL REDUNDANCE

- K. SPELLING - when explainable by reference to grammar; - to, a preposition; two, an adjective, and too, an adverb.

L. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

- (a) Definition
- (b) How to write it --

Begins with a capital letter

Ends with a period, exclamation mark, or interrogation mark.

M. PARSING AND ANALYSIS

- (a) Definition of both
- (b) Division of sentence into two parts
- (c) In general, the parsing will follow the elements outlined in the foregoing outline
- (d) The extent to which the parsing will be carried should be determined by the errors of the children

In the Kansas City study it was found that the following could be omitted from the course of study which was in operation in the schools at the time of the investigation: the exclamatory sentence, the conjunction, the appositive, the nominative of address, the nominative by exclamation, the objective complement, the adverbial objective, the indefinite pronoun,

the objective used as a substantive, the classification of adverbs, the noun clause, the conjunctive adverb, the retained objective, the moods (except, possibly, the subjunctive of to be), the infinitive (except a split infinitive), the objective subject, the participle (except the definition and the present and past forms), the nominative absolute, and the gerund (2:205-6).

12. Chamberlain says: (4:5) "The task of building a curriculum in English grammar involves three distinct activities, each the basis for a separate investigation; first, an analysis of the problems; second, studies of activity analysis which seek to discover the demands in English, such investigations to determine the function of English grammar; third, the evaluation of grading subject-matter which will best attain the aims, and its determination by classroom experiment. These three steps may be preceded, of course, by a survey of earlier investigations in order to discover what is valuable."

A study of the literature of curriculum reconstruction reveals that English has offered fewer contributions than have many other subjects (4:5).

A study relating to the building of a curriculum in English grammar, based upon pupils' errors, was made by Charters and Miller. "The purpose of this investigation was to find (1) what errors in the use of oral and written language forms violating rules of grammar were made by the children of the Kansas City elementary schools; (2) what rules in grammar were necessary in order to include and understand these items; (3) what items in the present course of study in Kansas City were included but unnecessary; and (4) what items should be included but were omitted" (6:194). The three

steps stated by Chamberlain were used by Charters in his study.

The principal cause of dissatisfaction with the elementary course in English grammar, a dissatisfaction freely expressed by teachers in both the grades and in the high school and by friendly critics outside the school circle, is to be found in the course of study, says Leonard (23:83). The usual elementary course in English is more impossibly inclusive and varied even than the high school course. It is certainly more impossible to follow and to teach with good results than that of any other subject in the curriculum.

According to H_osic (19:4) Curriculum of English to guide the teachers of a school, is in a sense, a necessary evil. If a wise and skillful person were to have charge of a group of children throughout the elementary period, she could provide, adapt, and devise for them better than any general curriculum could possibly suggest. But such conditions are rarely found. Instead classes meet several teachers, generally a new one every year; the teachers of a large school must work in concert; and hence arises the need of a plan to which all agree. When such a plan is an evolution -- grows out of the experience of many teachers laboring together for a number of years -- and is criticized in the light of what has been done elsewhere, it is quite likely to embody much of the best that is known about the work planned, and may come reasonably near to what the one ideally wise person would do if she had some of the children all the time (19:4).

But English as a subject of study does not lend itself readily or happily to definite outlining. The grading and prescription of literature,

in the present state of our knowledge at least, is necessarily arbitrary for the most part and may defeat the purpose of literary study (19:5).

It should be remarked that knowledge, enthusiasm, and a sound point of view are very important. Everyone who teaches English should be and remain a constant student, both of the problems of instruction and of language itself. She will hardly fail to love and observe her children and to study their need (19:7).

A course of study which is made to fit all of the children of a great city or state must be interpreted liberally, if good teaching is to be done. To this end, our best courses demand that a minimum amount of work be done by all teachers, and suggest alternative and optional work to meet the needs of children whose experiences are varied and whose needs are correspondingly different. In any progressive school system, the capable teacher has opportunity to vary the material presented in such a manner as will satisfy the interests and the problems of the group of children for whose growth she is responsible (36:232).

Summary

The ideal of the curriculum in English grammar is to give each individual at all times the experiences appropriate to his stage of advancement. Opposing view points suggested by such terms as practical, theoretical, cultural, enrichment, and elimination are always evident in discussions of the curriculum. Argument about the curriculum would be more productive of results if the meanings of these terms were agreed upon and understood.

The amount of work to be required in the curriculum is always an unsettled question, intimately related to the individual ability of pupils. Since pupils are not alike either in kind or amount of ability, it is recognized that the requirements will be different for each group.

The school curriculum is a resultant of social forces, psychological factors, and school traditions. Modern curriculum changes in English grammar wisely look in the direction of meeting individual needs more specifically. There must be individual teaching without sacrificing class instruction.

Pupils' interests must receive adequate attention in arranging the curriculum in English grammar; the content to be taught will depend upon the pupils' interest and also upon adult needs. The child-centered school seeks to prepare the child for his tomorrow (11:13-15).

The ideal elementary school grammar curriculum should include the school experiences which pupils gain during their grade-school life. The curriculum will be very wide in scope. Yet, with the thought of a path

along which the child will go, the ideal education will be so arranged that each pupil will get at the right time exactly the experience which his own peculiar interests call for; he will have at the end of the course the best equipment for life success which he at that age can appreciate (36:232).

CHAPTER IV

SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE IN THE FIELD OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The problem of accuracy in mechanics in written composition has caused much concern among educational leaders as well as among teachers of English composition. A large number of recent investigations in the field of English composition have attempted to ascertain the types of technical errors made by pupils in writing. The expressed purpose was to determine the common errors in order to determine the minimum essentials for a curriculum in English grammar. These studies have accumulated much objective data as a basis for classroom instruction.

The literature in the field of the present study can be divided into three divisions: (a) investigations to determine the nature of pupils' errors; (b) suggestive methods to be used in diagnosing and eliminating pupils' difficulties; (c) miscellaneous studies.

A. Investigations to Determine the Nature of Pupils' Errors

Many studies have been made in the field to discover pupils' errors in grammar in written composition. Probably of the most commonly known studies in the field of language error investigations is the one made by Charters and Miller. This study was made to determine what errors connected

with grammatical rules were made by children in grades three to eight in twelve of the Kansas City Schools. A Working list of errors was made in order to tabulate systematically the errors made by the pupils. No special effort to get written work was made, except that if possible, the pupils should select or be assigned once a week some topic upon which they could write with great freedom and at some length. Written work ordinarily done in the regular order of school work was included in this study (6:198).

The objectives of the studies are variously stated. Charters and Miller say, "The purpose of this investigation was to find (1) what errors in the use of oral and written language forms violating rules of grammar were made by the children of the Kansas City elementary schools, (2) what rules in grammar were necessary in order to include and understand these items, (3) what items in the present course of study in Kansas City were included but unnecessary and (4) what items should be included but were omitted" (6:194).

Professor Charters found that 30 per cent of the total errors in written work consisted in the failure to put a period at the end of a sentence. Other errors listed according to frequency are: Wrong part of speech due to similarity of sound; confusion of dependent and independent clauses; failure of a verb to agree with its subject; failure of an apostrophe to denote possession (29:139).

Charters concluded that the study resulted in a list of about sixty rules which were found to have been broken by the children in the Kansas City study. It was found that eliminations from the course of study could be made. The study also revealed that grammar holds a relatively smaller

place in the total of twenty-seven errors in written work than is held by items of punctuation.

Ashbaugh (24:93-94) states that the situation which confronts the pupil in writing a school theme differs greatly from the situation which confronts the pupil in writing a non-school composition, such as a letter to a friend. The best measure of a child's expressional habits is obtained when he is thinking about the substance of his expression. Ashbaugh attempted to ascertain the level of English usage which pupils reveal when the school and the teacher are "out", when the thought is uppermost, and when the recipient of the letter is another child. He examined letters sent through the mails by junior and senior high school pupils to their friends.

The results of the investigation can be summarized as follows:

Grammatical errors which included the use of the wrong verb occurred on the average of one time per letter. The incorrect use of tenses, which includes both failure to use proper tense as compared with the rest of the letter and the wrong form of the principal part with the auxiliary accounted for 45 per cent of all the grammatical errors noted. The lack of agreement of subject and verb accounted for 24 per cent of the grammatical errors.

Errors in punctuation and capitalization were frequent. The following summary of Ashbaugh's findings indicates the types of such errors found and the percentages of omission:

1. Comma in parenthetical words, phrases, and clauses omitted in 87 per cent of the occasions in Grade VII, in 16 per cent in Grade IX, and in

45 per cent in Grade XII.

3. Apostrophe of possession omitted in 63 per cent of the occasions in Grade VII, in 50 per cent in Grade IX, and in 37 per cent in Grade XII.

4. Question not followed by question mark in 34 per cent of the occasions in Grade VII, in 30 per cent in Grade IX, and in 26 per cent in Grade XII.

5. Comma in a series omitted in 22 per cent of the occasions in Grade VII, in 19 per cent in Grade IX, and in 11 per cent in Grade XII.

6. Declarative sentences not closed with a period in 23 per cent of the occasions in Grade VII, in 15 per cent in Grade IX, and in 16 per cent in Grade XII.

7. Capitals omitted in 7.7 per cent of the occasions in Grade VII, in 4.8 per cent in Grade IX, and in 4.9 per cent in Grade XII.

In conclusion, Ashbaugh found that the errors in punctuation were greater than the errors in capitalization.

Miss McPhee reports that in Lincoln, Nebraska, a committee of teachers was asked to submit a list of language forms which should be taught in the various grades of the elementary schools. The summary made from the individual lists submitted was too long for teaching. It was valuable, however, in that it showed that the teachers had observed these definite shortcomings in their pupils: (1) the misuse of the verb and pronoun form; (2) double negatives; (3) the use of a plural subject with a singular verb; (4) the use of a singular subject with a plural verb; (5) the use of the objective form as the subject of a verb; (6) the use of meaningless introductory words. Investigations that have been made of the language forms of

children suggested the answer to these questions and a summary was compiled of the language-error findings with the following places: Connersville, Indiana; Kansas City, Missouri; Boise City, Idaho; Iowa consolidated schools; and Cincinnati, Ohio (25:137).

The language errors of children discovered in these various studies were grouped as follows: errors found in all of the five studies, errors found in four studies, errors found in two of the studies, and errors found in one school.

The list of language errors that caused most of the errors was not large: 15 in five schools; 16 in four schools; 24 in three schools. These figures include errors in punctuation (25:138).

A test on thirty-nine language forms that had been selected for direct teaching in the various grades was then devised before the teachers in the various grades were told about the list. The elements composing this language test were as follows: 23 verb forms; 12 pronoun forms; 4 miscellaneous forms. This test was given in Grades from IIA to VIIA. The list of language forms to be taught is on all language errors common to studies.

A second test of the same type as the first was given. The test was composed of a new set of sentences. These tests were given three weeks apart. Comparison of the result of the test showed improvement in the recognition of language forms (25:139).

Leonard (S.A.) made a study to find how many pupils in a hundred in various elementary and high schools made certain commonly censured "grammatical errors" of a purely conventional sort like "them kind" and "learn

us", and to enable schools to find out the same thing specifically for themselves. For this procedure it was necessary to construct a purely objective measure as near as possible to a real situation in which children would use the wrong form. After many considerations it was determined to use the completion or blank filling test. It proved possible to construct such a test in which 97.5 per cent, on the average of all pupils in junior high schools filled in either the wrong form or the right form in every sentence. Since the forms are not there to choose, but the sense of the sentence naturally suggests the word to which the child is accustomed, it is probable that the element of chance is pretty well eliminated and that we find out the best of the pupils' knowledge and belief (22:430).

Pupils from grades VII to XII showed rather steadier improvement in the grammatical correctness tests, particularly in Test A, which was the harder and was taken as the standard in revision, then in the sentence recognition tests.

The scores by sentences made possible a ranking of all errors examined, from 32.1 per cent to 1.3 per cent wrong. These results demonstrated conclusively that the teaching of English grammar has plenty of genuinely serious difficulties to combat, and is at present effectual in combating many of them; too much time is, perhaps, wasted on correcting perfectly valid idioms.

A supplementary study was made which attempted to discover the effect of presenting wrong forms or a choice of right and wrong forms in a test of grammatical correctness. This was studied by presenting three tests each of 21 sentences, in which both the right and the wrong form, the wrong form

alone, and merely a blank to be filled in were presented.

The result of these tests given to 1,850 pupils showed that the correlations were so low that the tests cannot be said to measure evenly. A test of a number of sentences, on this type, some right and some wrong, best on a single form, is likely to show much of diagnostic value (22:433).

The first step in the construction of the tests of grammatical correctness was to examine all studies previously made on this sort of error. Most of these are summarized in Dr. Charters' chapter on "Language and Grammar" in the third Yearbook of the National Education Association on Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum. These studies have been most useful in showing where trouble centers. Stormzand has also given a good review of such studies and made a beginning of deriving index numbers by finding quotients of frequency of errors. In conclusion all data show us that a few wrong forms constantly repeated and not so multitudinous an array as has been supposed, constitute the bulk of the problem (22:434).

Symonds is of the opinion that "usage is markedly influenced by local conditions and every teacher should tabulate and summarize the errors occurring among her pupils." (37:452). To accompany the analysis there should be intensive studies of learning. Much of the difficulty that children experience in learning to express themselves adequately in writing is that it is not at all clear what is to be learned. One way to help the child to comprehend what he is to learn, is first teach him the grammar with vocabulary and rules and apply this grammar in the analysis of sentences that the application of this to one's form of expression is largely

lost. Is it not possible to teach the cues that we all use in writing and speaking and depend on grammar as such at all? These cues require a skilled psychological analysis and experimentation for their discovery. It is strange that in all the years devoted to the teaching the vernacular we have never attempted to ferret out the cues that we all use in knowing when to capitalize and to use certain word forms. Symonds concludes that if we know more about these cues, it would be possible to plan materials which would enable the children to learn these cues and readily facilitate correct usage (37:455).

Stormzand conducted an investigation to determine the relation between use and error. All the school compositions that were analyzed for frequencies of use, except those of the fourth grade were examined also for errors, so that we have a study of errors in a body of material ranging from that of university upper-class and freshman students, through the four years of high school, and the three upper grades of the elementary school.

The study deals with 288 separate compositions, containing 3,150 sentences, with a total of about 58,196 words. In order to make the study comparable with that of other studies in errors and at the same time related to the study of usage, the categories of error used in the studies of Charters and Miller, Lyman and Johnson were followed (35:165).

Errors in punctuation ranked first in all school levels; mistakes in spelling second; failure to express clear meaning is third in the totals and holds second or third place at all levels except with the high school sophomores and the seventh grade, and is fourth in rank in these. Mistakes

in capitalization quite consistently holds fourth or fifth place throughout until the University upper-class level is reached, when it drops to eleventh place.

He found that the ranks in the various categories of errors are practically constant. Stormzand says: (35:178-179) "While there are practically twice as many errors at the lowest school level as at the upper, the fact is explained by improvement from year to year in all the various categories, rather than by the elimination of any particular errors."

Stormzand concludes that the studies of error even with large masses of material, present only a limited indication as to the relative value of the various topics that might be included in a grammar course. Only by a frequency of use as well as a frequency of error can we find a basis for a revision of the course of study in grammar (35:192-193).

Symonds and Baldwin conducted a series of studies in the learning of English expression to describe exactly how pupils learn to express themselves in writing. This paper presents these facts for punctuation. Punctuation was selected first because it is fairly objective and the analysis could be easily carried through.

The immediate purpose was to determine how children learn to punctuate as they go through school. One way of doing this would be to collect samples of compositions from each grade and analyze them for punctuation. This method would be very laborious. The number of compositions that would have to be analyzed would be large for two reasons. In the first place, the growth in ability to punctuate is so slow that the difference between the punctuation in one grade and that of the next is very slight.

Consequently, a large number of themes would have to be read. In the second place, there are wide individual differences in ability to punctuate in any one grade.

To avoid the necessity for such an extensive analysis, the study was made by analyzing compositions which had been accurately rated on the Hillegas Composition Scale. There is much material available. All the compositions in published scales which have been calibrated according to the Hillegas Scale were used, as well as other compositions which have been used in investigations by Briggs, Abbott, and others. In all, 616 compositions were analyzed. These compositions were distributed over the Hillegas Scale. It was then possible to read from the analysis of the Hillegas Scale at any level the status in punctuation usage for the corresponding grade. Now this shift from the high school to grade school is permissible only if the correlation between usage in quality on the high school and that in grade school is perfect (± 1.00).

The error guide originally consisted of sixty-five headings to take care of the omissions and thirty-five headings to take care of wrong usage. The analysis included correct usage as well as the omissions and errors. One list or key was used for the inventory of both correct usage and omissions. The final list contained seventy-five usage and omission headings and fifty-one error headings.

The findings of this study were presented in three ways: first, the schedule with the total usages, omissions, and errors was given, and the findings were compared with those of previous investigators; second, graphs were made to show the progress of learning as the compositions improve and

and the pupils move through the school grades; third, the omission and error items were ranked according to frequency for each school grade from the fourth through the twelfth to serve as a basis for the curriculum in those years. The conclusion of this investigation was that the teacher of punctuation should concentrate her energies on those items standing high in rank in order on the list, and ignore items which analysis showed were either seldom used or used without error (38:461-470).

B. Suggestive Methods to be Used in Diagnosing and Eliminating Pupils' Difficulties

Another division in this field of literature includes the methods used in training pupils to discover and eliminate their errors.

A significant study was made by Kimmel (24:225) to learn the effects of emphasis in English composition on: (1) the pupils' factual background for expression: (2) clear and forceful writing or speaking; and (3) on the observance of conventional good usage. It was assumed that expression is the product of the entire intellectual and social development of a pupil and that expressional ability does not grow primarily out of a study of composition as such. Moreover, the usual method of treating products, namely, the painstaking examination of those products for language errors and for little else, tends to set up inhibitions that may interfere with spontaneous expression, tends to thwart any natural desire for expression by making the pupil overconscious of errors. On the contrary, given freedom to write first drafts with their attention primarily focused on content, organization, and the adaptability of their material for a specific audience, the pupils may as a final step in their productive work, assume

full individual responsibility for preparing a final draft free from gross language errors. They are then often quite capable of according painstaking self-appraisal to their first drafts; correctness in their minds is motivated by a desire to make the form of the finished product worthy of the content and the message.

To test this theory Kimmel used twenty-five eighth grade pupils in a community-life English course. In their regular written work, these pupils spent much time assembling materials for their compositions and in planning their papers. Then they wrote rough drafts freely, with the class group definitely in mind as the prospective audience. They appraised their work for language weaknesses and prepared proofread copies. All this was done in the class laboratory. Naturally, the written products contained weaknesses. However, the instructor did not make the errors except in one or two problem cases (the class contained five problem children) but required the re-writing of papers which had not reached a reasonable standard. He used an ingenious checking device by which the improvement of the themes as revised could be easily ascertained (24:225).

Language weaknesses which were revealed in the first presentation tests and the earlier compositions included: (1) lack of sentence sense; (2) excessive punctuation; (3) punctuation (the simpler elements) inconsistent; (4) errors in relations of pronouns and antecedents; and (5) gross language errors common to the five problem pupils.

The test given in February resulted in an average of 7.6 errors per pupil, the test in June averaged 3.1 errors. Punctuation showed 59 per cent improvement.

The data showed a consistent gain in scores for all pupils in the class. The pupils who ranked in the lowest fourth of the class for the themes written in June ranked higher in actual scores than those pupils who were in the upper fourth of the class for the themes written in February.

The pupils made definite progress in the mastery of content materials through a directed teaching in the assimilation of ideas. They also gained increased power and facility in written composition through the use of content materials when their attention was directed toward clear, forceful, and adequate expression of ideas rather than toward the overcoming of errors and the mastery of other details of usage. Kimmel concluded that mistakes in the elements of good usage decreased through directed emphasis on the positive objectives in expression (24:226).

An experiment in individual instruction was conducted by Shepherd with a seventh grade class. If a pupil in the individualized instruction class showed a need for a lesson in good English usage, he was told to study it. The pupils were responsible for good usage. They kept records of their own work. The papers in science and geography class were marked for errors and were then used as a basis for exercises in correct usage. If the work was free from error the pupil was granted the privilege of having a library period or using the tennis courts. All corrections were general. No pupil records were kept by the teacher. The drill work was confined to exercises in the textbook and papers written in English classes. All instructors demanded good English work. "It seems fair", says Shepherd, "to conclude that the seventh graders who have attained fair ability to express their ideas are able to profit to a reasonable degree by definite instruct-

ion in matters of usage" (33:675-684).

O'Rourke (L.J.), directed a research program to develop a more effective teaching method by means of which a pupil might with a minimum expenditure of time and effort on the part master the principles of correct usage of the English language. The program was so organized as to insure interest and purposeful effort on the part of the pupil. Another purpose was to determine the extent to which pupils who differ in mentality would profit from such technique.

The following was the procedure of the program. Self-aids were provided for each pupil to give him the means for accomplishing a given task. A series of exercises, each comprising a graded set of sentences illustrating important rules of correct usage by which each pupil tested himself in order to determine what he knew and what he did not know. He located his difficulties by means of self-correction sheets. For each exercise there was a self-correction sheet, which in addition to giving the correct form required in each sentence, directed the pupil to the clear explanation of each principle in the use of which he made a mistake.

The problem of reaching the individual, of giving him exactly the help that he needs, and of encouraging him to do his best work is one that confronts all educators. The program made a strong appeal because each pupil felt that he was concentrating on his specific difficulties. After each part of speech had been studied independently there was a review of all principles presented under that heading. A practice test corrected the pupil followed this review. The next exercise was a progress test dealing with the same principles as were covered in the practice test. This prog-

ress test was scored by the teacher. In one school two classes recorded their daily averages and compared their work. Both the pupils and the teachers were interested in seeing that the average of both classes were higher in each progress test corrected by the teacher than in the review test of equal difficulty corrected by the pupils on the preceding day (26:260).

Survey tests were given at the beginning of the program and achievement tests of equal difficulty and similar content were given at the end of the program.

The self-aid exercises contained sentences of the type a pupil uses in informal conversation, as well as sentences of the type he uses in writing. The pupil recorded the percentage of correct answers he made each day and his scores in the progress tests were given to him by the teacher and were recorded by him on the record sheet (26:263).

It is interesting to note the progress. The reports of the higher class showed an increase of from 30-97, or 67 points; the reports for the class of the lowest I.Q. showed an increase from 17-80, or 63 points. The progress made by the group with lowest I.Q. showed that such a class could benefit by the technique used in this program (26:271).

Washburne (24:202) reported rather startling superiority of children in Grades V-VII trained by individual instruction in punctuation and capitalization. The superiority of pupils given individual instruction over pupils comparable mental age given group instruction only was between 15 and 16 per cent as estimated by means of the Pressey tests in capitalization and punctuation. However, as Washburne pointed out, the Pressey tests

are in reality correction-of-error tests, and the pupils in the experimental groups had been specially trained in correcting errors. The extent to which this factor was a cause of the 15 to 16 per cent superiority is problematical. The conclusion is that the Pressey tests are valuable in reducing language errors.

McCormick (24:203) classified ninth grade pupils into ability groups on the basis of the results of intelligence tests and eighth grade rating, having three sections of superability, two sections of inferior ability, and two sections of mixed ability. Attempts were made to adjust instruction, both in the amount of materials covered and in the method of instruction, to the superior and the inferior sections. The superior sections advanced three times as rapidly as did the inferior; for example, one day sufficed for the former while four days were required by the latter in learning the structure and the punctuation of the compound sentence. However, tests given the groups at the close of instruction designed to estimate the control over the principles of usage that had been studied showed that the inferior group made much the better showing. No pupil in either group scored below 70; 23 per cent of the inferior pupils scored 100, while only 8.6 per cent of the superior pupils attained that proficiency. Apparently the superior sections advanced too rapidly for mastery of language drills is the conclusion of the study.

Wilson (24:201) very rightly affirmed that language-testing is little more than an educational gesture unless the results are utilized in determining for groups of pupils and for individual pupils the language species upon which they need to be drilled. A distribution of twenty-nine language

errors in a paragraph test given to 181 third-grade pupils in seven schools in Duluth, Minnesota, revealed medians of errors unrecognized as between thirteen and twenty. However, four pupils erred in twenty-five species out of twenty-nine. Pupils in the seventh grade and pupils in the high school showed almost as great a diversity of attainment with respect to the twenty-nine-language errors. A graph for each class was constructed to show each pupil exactly where he stood in relation to his fellows and indicated to him exactly the errors he needed to overcome. Wilson concludes that this makes the language problems specific for each child and furnishes a strong motive for work.

Seegers (24:206) gave to a group of 134 seventh-grade pupils the detailed results of their individual work as determined by the Willig Scale for Measuring Written Composition. The scale itself was posted, and the children were urged to employ self-correction and to measure their own work by the scale. In addition, individual pupils kept lists of the language errors which troubled them; all papers in the various school subjects were read for English as well as for content; children weak in mechanics were given special help; contests were held to determine relative improvement in correcting errors. October and May measurements by the scale showed story value improvement from a median of 50 to a median of 65, while the form value exceeded the seventh-grade standard. The number of errors made by the pupils in test themes dropped more than 50 per cent between October and May. The decrease in the total number of errors is significant because the test papers written in May were 40 per cent longer than the papers written in October. The experiment shows the results of co-operation among

teachers, active self-correction by pupils, individual attention to errors, and publicity given to objective marking. The experiment is open to the objection that no one teaching procedure was segregated for objective measurement.

An experiment was made by J.E. Fellows in theme-reading and theme-correcting. His purpose was to find out what influence theme-reading and theme-correcting had on eliminating technical errors in written compositions of ninth-grade pupils. He worked with the co-operation of ten experienced teachers in ten different school systems. Two types of measuring tests were used; objective tests and written compositions. In the theme-correcting group the papers were collected, errors corrected, the themes re-written and the original and revised copies returned to the pupil. The errors were indicated with red ink by the teacher. With "the non-theme-correction" group there was a different procedure. The teacher read, graded, and returned the paper. No correction, no re-writing, and no re-turning of papers were required. Twelve themes were given. One theme written weekly. Three initial compositions constituted the pre-test; ten, the instruction exercises; three, the final test. The errors were grouped into four main categories. The result of the error counts showed that the group of pupils in which the themes were corrected made slightly greater gains than the "non-theme-correction" group on the number of errors per hundred words. The data showed that theme-correction operates most effectively in securing improvement in English mechanics ability with "bright pupils"; very slightly among the dull pupils. Fellows says ; "If theme-correction is employed teachers can apply this method with greater confi-

dence to the themes of bright than to those of dull pupils (14:43).

In the study made by J.E. Fellows thirty skills were set up in the form of a brief error guide in order to facilitate their usefulness in the experiment. J.E. Fellows does not claim that this error guide embraces all the categories of mechanical errors found in the writing of ninth-grade pupils although approximately 75 per cent of all the errors can be classified into these categories. No item was considered unless a majority of the valid and reliable error studies showed that it had a high frequency of error in the pupils' writing.

The experiment was conducted in ten different school systems. The superintendent or principal and the English teacher participated. Twelve themes were given and corrected by the teacher by means of the error guide. The themes were read by the teacher and the errors indicated in red ink or pencil and returned to the pupils with a grade or mark assigned according to the school system. These errors were then corrected, the themes re-written and the original and revised themes handed back to the teacher within one week. The compositions of the other group were read but no errors were checked or indicated to the pupils in any manner, although a letter or grade mark was given to each theme. These themes were also returned to the pupils, but no re-writing and returning of corrected themes were required.

Twenty thousand sixteen initial theme errors of the kinds listed in the error guide were found, of which approximately 12 per cent were capitalization errors, 34 per cent were punctuation errors and 9 per cent grammar errors.

In conclusion, the results of the error counts showed that the group of pupils in which detailed theme-correction was used made slightly greater gains than the non-theme-correction group in the number of technical errors per 100 words in written composition (14:43-45).

Miss Du Breuil on examining a set of papers which contained a number of run-on-sentences noted that eight of ten mistakes in sentence structure were made before a subject personal pronoun. She made a rule which she later modified. In its final form it read: Put a period or a semicolon before each of the following words unless it is preceded by a conjunction, a phrase, or a dependent clause: I, he, she, it, we, they, this, that, thus, then, the, a. A list of these words was written on the board and the pupils were instructed to refer to the list and check their papers before handing them to the teacher. These usages were used in dictation and punctuation exercises. Miss Du Breuil concluded that "After two weeks war against these twelve sentence enemies, the pupils' improvement in sentence structure was so marked, that I burned to impart my new-got knowledge." (13:319).

Wiswall, (Z.E.) conducted an investigation in 1925 under the title "A Study of Sentence Structure in Four Types of Composition in Grade VIII." Four topic assignments, a reproduction, an original narrative, an exposition, and an argument, were administered to two hundred eighth-grade pupils. The papers were carefully scored in order to ascertain the percentage of comma-splice sentence errors and the percentage of non-sentence errors. Out of a total of 8,599 sentences in the eight hundred compositions, 479 or 5.5% of the sentences were of the comma-splice type and 154 or 1.8% were

of the non-sentence or fragmentary type. It was necessary to eliminate these two outstanding weaknesses in the written composition in this grade before attention could be directed toward the finer phases of sentence construction. This study was an attempt to eliminate the run-on-sentence error and the non-sentence error from the composition of eighth-grade pupils.

The four topic assignments were all administered in precisely the same manner. The papers were scored in exactly the same way. The conclusion was that with ordinary methods, very little is being done to eliminate these error type sentences from compositions (40:513).

A sentence recognition test composed of sentences taken from the composition work of the eighth-grade pupils and containing these error sentences was also formulated and administered to the class. Some of the sentences in the sentence-recognition test contained both types of errors. This type was included because the correct proof-reading of such material is a more rigid test of a pupils ability in sentence recognition than are sentences in which only one type of difficulty occurs. Pupils were able to correct 91.3% of the comma-splice sentence errors. This is evidence of the fact that a large percentage of these errors were due to carelessness. In the individual conferences on the four compositions obtained in the retesting procedure, the pupils were able approximately to correct 90% of the comma-splice sentence errors. This is further evidence that the mistakes were due not to an actual lack of sentence sense, but to a sluggish habit in the matter (40:519).

The test given in 1925 was repeated to determine whether improvement

had been made in teaching eighth-grade composition. The pupil should be taught to recognize quickly the subject and predicate and the omission of the subject with its resulting incompleteness of thought. He must recognize the prepositional phrase and he must comprehend the asserting function of the verb.

This procedure was used in trying out the effectiveness of sentence recognition drills. Pupils were divided into two groups of equal ability, Group A and Group B. Group A continued to work under the ordinary method of instruction; Group B, or the experimental group, was given the sentence recognition drills. A period of three weeks was used for this trial experiment. The first week was centered upon the comma-splice sentence error, the second week upon the non-sentence error, and the third week upon a combination of the two errors.

Sentences containing errors were put on the blackboard. These errors were discussed with Group B. On Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday the sentence recognition drills were administered, papers checked, and individual help given each day to the pupils who persisted in making the errors. On Wednesday, the papers showed a decided improvement over Monday's work. In order to bring the drill work down more nearly to the natural situation for written composition, a paragraph of proof-reading was given on Thursday, the papers checked, and individual conferences held with pupils who made the error. In almost every instance pupils were able to point out their error themselves. The same method of procedure was followed the second and third weeks. The pupils wrote their original paragraphs on Friday and the papers were scored. The same topic assignment was also given to the A or

control group which had been working along in the usual way. The result showed an improvement of Group B over Group A. The conclusion was that drill material was an effective means for reducing sentence errors (40:520-526).

C. Miscellaneous Studies

An investigation by Guiler was made (a) to indicate how well a group of 649 high-school graduates were able to capitalize, and (b) to show the prevalence with which errors in specific capitalization usages were made by the student. Of the 649 students, 303 graduated from high school in the late spring of 1928 and entered the University; the remaining 346 graduated entering in September 1929.

During the first week of their freshman year in college, each of the two groups of students was given the Guiler-Henry Preliminary Test in Capitalization. The test covers over thirty specific capitalization usages, each of which is measured two or more times (15:21-22).

The following statements which are supported by the author's data represent conclusions from this study:

1. A considerable proportion of the 649 high-school graduates included in this study manifested a surprising lack of mastery of certain species of capitalization usage in English grammar.
2. The error quotient data revealed an unusually high degree of constancy of the same types of error for two groups of students graduating from high school in two successive years.
3. Students exhibited a wide range in ability to capitalize. The

twelfth grade standard was attained by 3.6 per cent of the group, while 4.6 per cent fell below the standard for the seventh grade.

4. The students varied widely in their mastery of specific usages.

5. Much displacement existed between the ranking of errors, as determined by frequency and error quotients respectively.

6. Most of the mistakes in capitalization were grouped about a few errors; six errors accounted for more than 50% of the total number of errors.

7. The evidence shows that training cannot be relied upon to transfer from one usage to another in any significant degree (15:21-23).

A study by Pressey attempted to determine the comparative frequency of different types of errors in sentence structure in written work. It was based on a total of 980 papers (182,985) words written by pupils in Grades VII-XII; comparisons were also made with six other studies of error in sentence structure. The major conclusions may be stated as follows:

1. Errors in sentence structure appeared to be about as common in the last two years of high school as in the seventh and eighth grades. There is a change in the comparative frequency with which certain errors occur; in grades XI-XII run-on-sentences are less frequent, but there are more mistakes due to failure to co-ordinate properly the parts of long compound and complex sentences.

2. Two general types of error-failure to make proper sentence division, and omission of word or phrase-make up approximately one-half of all the errors.

3. Two other types of error - faulty reference of pronouns and redundancy - are also common.

4. In general, errors in sentence structure are of a few, frequently recurring types. The most common errors persist throughout the high school, and appear in the writing of college students.

5. Errors in sentence structure are very important, since they make reading difficult, and often lead to the confusion of meaning (26:529-531).

The material of the study consisted of 980 compositions written by school children. The themes were chiefly narrative and were samples of the regular class work. The errors were classified as they were located according to a scheme previously worked out in preliminary studies of errors and usage. Three other investigations were also studied. The feature of these results is the lack of improvement from the seventh to the twelfth in mastery of the sentence structure; the total errors decreased hardly at all (26:532).

In these same papers less than half as many errors in capitalization were found in grades XI-XII as in VII-VIII. This contrast is more or less to be expected; capitalization is a much more definite and simple subject than sentence structure. Errors to be attributed to lack of "sentence sense" make up the bulk of the mistakes; nearly half of the total is included under two heads, "Fragments used as sentences" and "String sentences". Next come difficulties in relating the pronoun to its antecedent. The other errors covered appeared of almost equal frequency. Studies dealing with errors in sentence structure have been made by Charters and Miller, Johnson, Lyman, Stormzand and O'Shea, Vaughn, and Potter. The last two

mentioned deal wholly with college students, and the Johnson and Stormzand O'Shea investigations report the writing of college students (26:533-535).

Stalnaker sought to find the relationship between students' ability to classify specific sentence faults and his ability to correct sentence errors. He gave a sentence structure test prepared by the Board of Education of the University of Chicago, to 403 students in English composition. This exercise required the student to sort each of forty-five sentences into one of nine classifications. Illustrations and definite explanations were given. The students were required first to classify and then to re-write the sentences which he marked faulty. Fifty minutes were allowed for this procedure - the correction and classification of the forty-five sentences. In conclusion Stalnaker states that as far as tests and subject were concerned "a test of the ability to classify sentence faults gives virtually the same score as the ability to correct them" (34:493-494).

Miss Clark made an examination of themes, one written at the beginning of the year and one at the end of the year by each of 100 University Freshmen. A study of the available information about the English of these Freshmen and a review of previous investigations led to certain conclusions concerning frequency and persistency of errors in sentence structure. Mistakes in sentence structure were confined to a few fundamental errors. The three most common faults, (a) sentence fragment, omission of words and phrases, and inconsistency of structure comprised over half of the total frequency of error. (b) Errors due to lack of sense, namely sentence fragment, stringy sentences, and the comma splice comprised approximately 35

per cent of the total frequency of error. This large percentage indicated a weakness of sentence sense on the part of high school graduates. In general, the following errors appeared most commonly in the study and in the studies by Pressey, Johnson and Lyman, Stormzand and O'Shea: fragments, inconsistencies of structure, stringy sentence, omission, faulty references, and redundancy and repetition (8:33).

University Freshmen made the same errors even in greater number than junior high school pupils make. An improvement of only 13 per cent in sentence structure occurred during the Freshman year. Some students showed improvement, while the writing of others was poorer at the end of the year than at the beginning.

The composition in high school and in the university is not functioning adequately in the general written composition of students, so far as the fundamental elements in sentence structure are concerned. More efficient means and methods of instruction in the fundamental elements of sentence structure should be adopted is the general conclusion of this study (8:33).

The following means and methods of teaching were suggested: (1) that English teachers be willing to face the humble, rather humdrum task of teaching the mechanics of writing sentences; (2) that the literary motive be rejected as the primary motive in composition; (3) that the weaknesses in the writing of pupils be used as a basis for a set of minimum essentials in which much concrete drill shall be given, and which shall be rigidly adhered to; (4) that individual rather than mass instruction be given in composition; (5) that ability grouping be used wherever possible;

(6) that functional grammar be taught in the junior high school and reviewed thereafter as needed; (7) that decent form in sentence structure be considered a mark of self-respect; (8) that means be found for maintaining a closer relationship between elementary-school English and secondary school English, and between the English of the high school and that of the University (8:34).

Jessie Edward Thomas conducted an experiment with two groups to determine the specific value of drill. Two classes were used. His specific problems were: (1) to discover to what extent formal drill of dictation and multiple response types on the more technical errors in English reduced such errors in similar formal situations; and (2) to discover to what extent the reduction of such errors occurred in written composition. The chief difference in the two groups was in the use of dictation and multiple choice tests in the experimental group. Both groups were matched on the basis of initial theme-error scores. An analysis of the results showed that the experimental group which used the drills made an improvement in the ability to meet the technical situations in written work more easily. The showing in actual composition improvement was more decisive than the one on the formal tests. This study showed that the use of a specific drill "carries over the reduction of similar errors in written composition" (39:18).

Jessie Edward Thomas made a study of technical errors in written composition. Procedure of the testing program was as follows. In order to carry on such a study it was necessary to have the co-operation of several high schools. In November of 1929 letters were sent to a number of

superintendents and principals asking them if they would be interested in the proposed study. Many of the replies were favorable and plans were made to carry on the study. From the list of favorable replies, ten schools enrolling enough pupils in their ninth grade English classes to have two sections of about twenty-five pupils each were selected to carry on the study.

A definite testing program was outlined. This program consisted of two parts, a series of initial and a series of final tests. Diagnostic tests in English composition involving capitalization, punctuation, and grammar were also used (39:20).

A test in mechanics was constructed especially for this study by Mr. J.E. Fellows and the writer, J.E. Thomas, under the supervision of D.M. Carpenter.

Each pupil wrote three themes on different subjects on three different days. Most of the themes consisted of about two hundred words making a total of approximately six hundred words of writing from each pupil. All writing was done under the supervision of the teacher (39:25).

The tests of 487 pupils were scored by the author, J.E. Thomas, and his assistant. The specific items under each of these categories were selected because they had been found to be extremely frequent. J.E. Thomas does not claim that his study takes account of all the important errors in the writing of the ninth-grade pupils, but he claims that it takes account of approximately seventy-five per cent of them. The errors were listed under capitalization, punctuation, and grammar. The conclusion for this study is, that errors in written composition can be eliminated

through formal drill (39:25-30).

Ruhlen and Pressey made a systematic study with high school and college students of all the punctuation found in one hundred business letters and fifty professional business letters and in samplings from one issue of the World's Work, Scribner's Magazine, the Atlantic Monthly, and the New York Times, the Ohio State Journal, the Columbus Dispatch, and the Cincinnati Enquirer, a total of 38,638 words, approximately 12,000 words for each type of material.

The magazines were selected as representatives of the best current publications; every tenth page was studied; of the newspapers, the front page only was gone over, as this part of the paper is read most frequently. In examining the business letters, the count dealt only with the body.

Usages were classified after careful study of handbooks in English Composition. The classification was based on no one of these authorities, but it was believed to be fairly satisfactory and complete.

In handling the results, the total number of cases of each usage for each of the three types of written work (magazines, newspapers, and business letters) was summed and the results for each group expressed in terms of the number of cases of that usage per 10,000 words. Thus handling the results, it was possible to make comparisons from one type of the reading matter to another (31:325).

The report showed that the period and the comma carry the burden of punctuation, 87 per cent of all the marks used being either periods or commas. Ruhlen and Pressey offered a list of minimum essentials in punctuation. The centering of attention in early instruction in the items of

punctuation appearing most frequently in current usage should prove profitable (31:326).

A survey of the technical difficulties in English encountered by senior students was reported by McCarty (23:91). Errors in different types of work done by the students were tabulated. Sentence structure ranked first in frequency, followed in order by punctuation (chiefly the comma), capitalization, spelling, quotation marks, use of words, hyphen, confusion of tenses, forms of common verbs, and agreement of verb with its subject. Twenty-three items appeared in the list, the items being similar to those in lists compiled by other investigators.

Summary of Conclusions Based on A Summary
of the Literature in the Field of the
Present Study

Seegers found that punctuation ranked second, errors in grammar third, sentence structure fourth. Errors in punctuation ranked first in frequency in the Stormzand study, also in the Lyman study while they ranked second in the Johnson and third in the Armstrong study.

Four other types of errors appearing frequently were, in the order of frequency, careless omissions or repetitions, ungrammatical sentence structure, mistakes in capitalization and failure to express clear meaning (frequent in the Lyman and the Stormzand studies but infrequent in the Armstrong and the Johnson studies).

Johnson reported a high frequency for mistakes in capitalization. Pressey reported that 43 per cent of all the errors in his study was of this type.

Charters and Miller found that verb errors constituted more than 50 per cent of all errors. Ashbaugh's greatest number of errors was in the use of the verb.

Shepherd, comparing the results of the two types of instruction, the group method and a comparable class by individual instruction, found that at the end of a year 43 per cent of the first group were lesson learners, that is, the pupils practiced good usage very much better in their English papers than in their science papers. Under the plan of individual in-

struction, lesson-learners were reduced to 17 per cent of the class. Other evidences showed the advantage of the individual method. Of fifty-eight judgements reported, fifty-three reported in favor of the individual method. Shepherd's follow-up work, to discover both of the effects of English instruction in the writing of classics other than English and the holding over effects after lapses of time, characterizes her as one of the best investigators in this field.

Washburne reported startling superiority of children by individual instruction in punctuation and capitalization as revealed by the Pressey tests.

Effectiveness of written expression is frequently reported when pupils are led to careful appraisal of their own weakness and made aware of their need for improvement was reported by Kimmel.

Fellows found in his teacher-checking that study-theme correcting operates effectively in securing improvement in English mechanics ability among bright pupils, and very slightly or indifferently among dull pupils.

The writer is of the opinion that the successful factors taken from all the methods where improvement in training in the elimination of errors was effective, involved carefully planned presentations and directed training in specific usage, supervision of the pupils' writing, and educating the pupils to standards of accuracy for which they should be responsible in all their expressional activities written or oral.

CHAPTER V

THE PRESENT STUDY

A. The Problem

It was the purpose of the present study to determine the errors of pupils in written composition in grades six, seven, and eight in certain parochial schools in the state of Wisconsin. The problem resolved itself into the following specific tasks:

1. What types of errors predominated in the lists of errors secured from the pupils' compositions?
2. What rules in grammar, punctuation, and capitalization were violated by the pupils and were, therefore, needed in the curriculum in order that instruction might eliminate or prevent these errors?
3. What items of the above (No. 2) were omitted from the course of study in English for the schools involved in the present study?
4. What items were included in the present course of study for the schools in question which were apparently unnecessary from the point of view of instruction?

The study was conducted in certain parochial schools in the state of Wisconsin. The schools and their locations are as follows:

1. Brother Dutton grade school and junior high, Beloit, Wisconsin
2. Precious Blood, New London, Wisconsin

3. St. John's, Waunakee, Wisconsin
4. St. Joseph's grade school and junior high, Fond du Lac, Wisconsin
5. St. Luke's, Two Rivers, Wisconsin
6. St. Mark's, Two Rivers, Wisconsin
7. St. Peter Claver, Sheboygan, Wisconsin

The organization within the above schools is as follows:

Two of the schools have a junior high, one school has double grades, two have eight grades (one grade in a room), and two are four-room schools, having two grades in each room. Formal grammar is taught in these schools from the third grade through the junior high.

There is a school board for the diocese in which these schools are located. The Archbishop or Bishop is the president of the school board. He appoints a priest to the office of superintendent. The Rev. Superintendent visits the schools regularly to give assistance to the teachers and to check up on the progress of the pupils in the various grades. Annual and semi-annual examinations are sent to the schools and the results forwarded to the Rev. Superintendent.

Every community which conducts schools must appoint a Supervisor, a Sister who does not teach, to visit each school once or twice a year. The principals of all the schools in which this study was conducted, except one, teach full time and, therefore, have little or no time for supervision. The classrooms are equipped with practically all the various types of recent materials for the instruction of the pupils.

The textbooks are voted upon by the various communities and approved by the Superintendent. The English textbooks used in these schools are as

follows: English Grammar by Smith, Magee, and Seward; Better English by Potter, Jeschke, and Gillet; Steps in English by McLean, Blaisdell, and Morrow; Speaking and Writing English by Sheridan, Keliser and Matthews; Junior Highway to English by Ward and Moffett. The Wisconsin State Course of Study (See Appendix A) is followed in the schools in which this study was made.

All the pupils in these schools were American-born. The homes, in general, are very good; some good, some fair, and a few poor.

The parents of the pupils are nearly all American-born. Their education varies from that of the elementary school to that of the university inclusive. Tables I and II indicate the nationality and descent of the parents of the pupils in this study. English is spoken by the parents in all the homes and, therefore, the children have ample opportunity to use the English language even before entering school.

Table III shows the occupations of the fathers of the pupils. A number of the fathers follow professions which require a college education, some hold government positions which required the passing of Civil Service examinations. The education of the fathers is obviously another asset to the child.

The teachers in grades six, seven, and eight cooperated with the writer in the present study. Every pupil in these grades was required to write ten compositions of three hundred words each. One composition was assigned each week upon some topic upon which the pupil could write with some freedom. The teachers corrected the compositions and tabulated the errors. The teachers reported that the pupils of these grades, with few

exceptions, were very studious, attended school regularly, and were interested in all school activities. Their home-study habits were considered very good. The ambitions of all these pupils were praiseworthy. The majority of them aimed to acquire a higher education if financial conditions would permit.

TABLE I

Nationalities of Fathers of Pupils Involved
in the Present Study

Nationality by Descent Only	Schools						
	Beloit	F. du Lac	N. London	Sheb.	(1) Two Riv.	(2) Two Riv.	Waun.
Austrian					1		
Belgian	1	2	1		6		
Bohemian	1	2		5	34	1	1
Chinese	1						
Danish					1		
Dutch		4	1		1	1	
English		4	2	9	10		5
Flemish	1						
French	4	7	34	56	78	17	
German	29	60	54	90	53	26	54
Irish	36	37					9
Italian	2						
Lithuanian			2				
Norwegian	1				3		
Polish	1	2			30	5	
Russian	1						
Scotch	3	6					
Spanish	1						
Swedish		1					
Foreign Born	18				4		
Total	100	125	94	110	221	50	69

TABLE II

Nationalities of Mothers of Pupils Involved
in the Present Study

Nationality by Descent Only	Schools						
	Beloit	F. du Lac	N. London	Sheb.	(1) Two Riv.	(2) Two Riv.	Waun.
Austrian	1						
Belgian		2	1		8		
Bohemian		2			30		1
Chinese	1						
Czechoslovakian	1						
Danish				1			
Dutch		2	1			1	
English	2	2	2	2	3		7
Flemish					2		
French	13	4	17	9	61	16	
German	22	63	50	91	80	25	58
Irish	43	46	21	6	6	2	3
Italian					1		
Lithuanian			1				
Norwegian			1				
Polish		1			25	6	
Russian					1		
Scotch		2					
Spanish				1			
Swedish		1					
Foreign Born	17				4		
Total	100	125	94	110	221	50	69

TABLE III

Occupations of Fathers of Pupils Involved in
the Present Study

Occupation	Schools						
					(1)	(2)	
	Beloit	Fc du Lac	N. London	Sheb.	Two Riv.	Two Riv.	Waun.
Baker		2		2			
Banker		1	1				1
Barber				1			
Bookkeeper			4		1		
Butcher					1		
Bus Driver			9	1			
Carpenter	2		3	4	9		2
Civil Engineer					3		
Clerk	4	6	2	10	11		2
Coast Guard					2		
Contractor	1	4					
Cook	1						
Dentist					1		
Designer	2						
Doctor	2						
Druggist			1				
Electrician			2	2			
Engineer		5	2	1			
Farmer	4	6	5	1	8		51
Factory				3		23	
Fireman		9		3	4		
Fisherman					24		
Foreman					10		
Inspector		6	1	1			
Judge		2					
Insurance Agent		6	1	1	2		
Janitor	1	3	4	1	4		
Jeweler	1						
Laborer	27	25	40	49	101	13	8
Lawyer	3						
Machinist	13		1	2	3		
Mechanic	26	4	4	13	13	14	1
Merchant					6		
Milkman		3		1			
Miner					1		
Motorman				2			

TABLE III (continued)

Occupation	Schools						
	Beloit	F. du Lac	N. London	Sheb.	(1) Two Riv.	(2) Two Riv.	Waun.
Moulder	1			1			
Musician				2			
Painter	3	7			1		
Photographer				1			
Plumber	1	2			1		2
Policeman				1			
Postmaster		1	1		1		1
Radio Service				1			
Railroader	1	12	1		2		
Real Estate					1		
Salesman	7	14	10	2	2		
School Principal							1
Senator		1					
Shoemaker				4	2		
Tavern Keeper		2	1		7		
Undertaker			1				
Total	100	125	94	110	221	50	69

B. The Data of the Present Study

Tables IV to XXI inclusive present the data of the present study. Tables IV to XII inclusive, present the errors in grammar, punctuation, and capitalization, respectively for the boys, girls, and total pupils in each grade for all the schools involved in the study. Tables XIII to XV inclusive show the errors made in grammar in written composition by pupils in grades six, seven, and eight, ranked according to total pupils for all schools and for each school.

Tables XVI to XVIII inclusive present the errors made in punctuation in written composition by pupils in grades six, seven, and eight, ranked according to total pupils for all schools and for each school.

Tables XIX to XXI inclusive present the errors made in capitalization in written composition by pupils in grades six, seven, and eight, ranked according to total pupils for all schools and for each school.

The writer will attempt to analyze and discuss the various tables in terms of the subdivisions of her problem as stated at the beginning of this chapter. Table IV presents the errors in grammar for the pupils in grade six. Noting the total column, it is evident that errors in sentence structure predominated very definitely. There is a decided drop in the relative number of errors (about 30-34 per cent) for the two types of error which follow in order of frequency, namely: Failure of a verb to agree with its subject and wrong tense. The next three types of errors: misplaced modifiers, wrong form of pronouns, and confusion of prepositions, items four, five and six, show a decrease in frequency of about 38 per cent

as compared with items two and three. There is a decided decrease in frequency of error, about 53 per cent, in the next four types of error e.g. failure of the pronoun to agree with its antecedent, possessive sign omitted, double negatives, confusion of past tense and past participle, items seven, eight, nine and ten, as compared with items four, five and six. The next six types of errors: confusion of the pronoun their and the adverb there, confusion of adjectives and adverbs, formation of plurals, apostrophe omitted, double comparisons and wrong verbs, items eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen and sixteen, similarly show a decrease in frequency of about 40 per cent as compared with items seven, eight, nine and ten. The last three errors; wrong case, wrong moods, and confusion of comparative and superlative may be regarded as relatively unimportant, probably due to the fact that their use by the pupils was infrequent (See Table IV).

Table V presents errors in grammar for the pupils in grade seven. According to the total column, errors in sentence structure ranked first. The two types following are failure of a verb to agree with its subject and wrong tense, items two and three, with a decrease in frequency of about 37 per cent as compared with item one. The three following types of error in order of frequency are confusion of prepositions, misplaced modifiers and wrong form of pronouns, items four, five and six, with a decrease in frequency of about 34 per cent as compared with items two and three. These are followed by two other types listed according to frequency: failure of a pronoun to agree with its antecedent and confusion of adverbs and adjectives, items seven and eight, with a decrease in frequency of about 36 per

TABLE IV

Errors Made in Grammar in Written Composition by Pupils
of Grade Six in Certain Parochial Schools in
the State of Wisconsin

Types of Errors	Number of Errors		
	Boys (126)	Girls (146)	Total (272)
1. Sentence structure	697	654	1351
2. Failure of the verb to agree with its subject	499	464	963
3. Wrong tense	460	425	885
4. Misplaced modifier	330	311	641
5. Wrong form of pronoun	272	300	572
6. Confusion of preposition	199	341	540
7. Failure of the pronoun to agree with its antecedent	164	251	415
8. Possessive sign omitted	201	196	399
9. Double negatives	242	78	320
10. Confusion of past tense and past participle	134	116	250
11. Wrong use of the pronoun <u>their</u> and the adverb <u>there</u>	130	100	230
12. Confusion of adverbs and adjectives	130	90	220
13. Formation of plural	116	84	200
14. Apostrophe omitted	113	62	175
15. Double comparisons	92	72	164
16. Wrong verbs	42	106	148
17. Wrong case	41	54	95
18. Wrong moods	42	30	72
19. Confusion of comparative and superlative	27	23	50

TABLE V

Errors Made in Grammar in Written Composition by
Pupils of Grade Seven in Certain Parochial
Schools in the State of Wisconsin

Types of Errors	Number of Errors		
	Boys (139)	Girls (147)	Total (286)
1. Sentence structure	697	654	1351
2. Failure of the verb to agree with its subject	499	364	863
3. Wrong tense	368	475	840
4. Confusion of preposition	295	435	732
5. Misplaced modifier	335	316	651
6. Wrong form of pronoun	257	285	542
7. Failure of the pronoun to agree with its antecedent	164	251	415
8. Confusion of adverb and adjective	225	140	345
9. Double negative	102	92	194
10. Wrong verb	97	81	178
11. Wrong moods	87	85	172
12. Possessive sign omitted	31	116	147
13. Confusion of past tense and past participle	60	43	113
14. Confusion of comparative and superlative	64	32	96
15. Formation of plural	35	55	90
16. Apostrophe omitted	5	35	40
17. Wrong use of the pronoun <u>their</u> and the adverb <u>there</u>	0	34	34
18. Double comparisons	7	4	11
19. Dangling participle	0	34	34

cent as compared with items four, five and six. Three other types of errors: double negatives, wrong verbs, wrong moods, items nine, ten and eleven, follow with a drop of about 50 per cent as compared with items seven and eight. Possessive sign omitted, confusion of past tense and past participle, items twelve and thirteen, follow with a decrease in frequency of about 34 per cent as compared with items nine, ten and eleven. Six other types of error; confusion of comparative and superlative, formation of plurals, apostrophe omitted, wrong use of the pronoun *their* and the adverb *there*, double comparisons and dangling participles can be regarded as unimportant according to frequency (See Table V).

Table VI presents the errors in grammar for the pupils of grade eight. Errors in sentence structure according to the total is again the most frequent error. The three types of error; wrong tense, confusion of prepositions, and misplaced modifiers, items two, three and four, follow with a decrease of about 28 per cent as compared with item one. Three other types of error follow according to frequency: wrong form of pronoun, confusion of past tense and past participle and failure of a verb to agree with its subject, items five, six and seven, showing a decrease in frequency of about 27 per cent as compared with items two, three and four. The other types of errors listed according to frequency: failure of a pronoun to agree with its antecedent, confusion of adverbs and adjectives, formation of plurals, double negatives, wrong verbs and wrong moods, items eight, nine, ten, eleven, twelve and thirteen follow with a decrease in frequency of about 65 per cent as compared with items five, six and seven. Two other types: confusion of the pronoun their and the adverb there and

TABLE VI

Errors Made in Grammar in Written Composition by
 Pupils of Grade Eight in Certain Parochial
 Schools in the State of Wisconsin

Types of Errors	Number of Errors		
	Boys (100)	Girls (111)	Total (211)
1. Sentence structure	346	261	607
2. Wrong tense	194	293	487
3. Confusion of preposition	274	189	463
4. Misplaced modifier	201	232	433
5. Wrong form of pronoun	168	216	384
6. Confusion of past tense and participle	145	198	343
7. Failure of the verb to agree with its subject	179	152	331
8. Failure of the pronoun to agree with its antecedent	92	134	226
9. Confusion of adverb and adjective	81	118	209
10. Formation of plural	92	89	181
11. Double negative	73	67	140
12. Wrong verb	63	50	113
13. Wrong mood	50	61	111
14. Wrong use of the pronoun <u>their</u> and the adverb <u>there</u>	48	18	66
15. Possessive sign omitted	54	-	54
16. Wrong case	21	26	47
17. Confusion of comparative and superlative	31	-	31
18. Dangling participle	18	12	30
19. Apostrophe omitted	9	17	26
20. Double comparisons	4	8	12

possessive sign omitted, items fourteen and fifteen, follow with a drop of about 50 per cent as compared with items eight to thirteen inclusive. The remaining five types are unimportant due, no doubt, to the fact that their use is infrequent (See Table VI).

Table VII presents the errors in punctuation for the pupils in grade six. In the punctuation of this grade quotation marks omitted is the most frequent error. The three following types: comma omitted in a series, period omitted after abbreviations and comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses, items two, three and four show a decrease in frequency of about 56 per cent as compared with item one. Unnecessary punctuation, comma omitted after the name of the person addressed, comma omitted between the city and state, items five, six and seven follow in frequency of error with a decrease of about 25 per cent as compared with items two, three and four. Three other types: parenthetical words not set off by commas, comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence and period omitted at the end of a declarative sentence, items eight, nine, and ten, follow with a decrease in frequency of about 48 per cent as compared with five, six and seven. Two types of errors; comma omitted to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence and the appositives not set off by commas were infrequent (See Table VII).

Table VIII presents the errors in punctuation for grade seven. Comma omitted in a series shows the greatest frequency of error. There is a decrease of about 49 per cent in the number of errors for the next type of error, which is parenthetical words not set off by commas, item two, as compared with item one. The following two types: comma omitted after

TABLE VII

Errors Made in Punctuation in Written Composition by
Pupils of Grade Six in Certain Parochial Schools
in the State of Wisconsin

Types of Errors	Number of Errors		
	Boys (126)	Girls (146)	Total (272)
1. Quotation marks omitted	368	276	644
2. Comma omitted in a series	240	223	563
3. Period omitted after abbreviations	217	167	384
4. Comma omitted after trans- posed words, phrases and clauses	155	123	278
5. Unnecessary punctuation	113	120	233
6. Comma omitted after the name of the person addressed	109	118	227
7. Comma omitted between the city and state	122	99	221
8. Parenthetical words not set off by commas	72	76	148
9. Comma omitted between clauses of a compound sentence	92	50	142
10. Period omitted at the close of a declarative sentence	63	75	114
11. A comma to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence	26	20	46
12. Appositives not set off by commas	14	7	21

TABLE VIII

Errors Made in Punctuation in Written Composition by
 Pupils of Grade Seven in Certain Parochial
 Schools in the State of Wisconsin

Types of Errors	Number of Errors		
	Boys (139)	Girls (147)	Total (286)
1. A comma omitted in a series	476	447	923
2. Parenthetical words not set off by commas	254	243	497
3. Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses	171	222	393
4. Appositives not set off by commas	188	182	370
5. Quotation marks omitted	135	223	358
6. Comma omitted after <u>yes</u> and <u>no</u>	186	152	338
7. Period omitted after abbreviations	150	175	325
8. Comma omitted after name of the person addressed	112	135	247
9. Comma to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence	125	115	240
10. Comma omitted between clauses of a compound sentence	89	105	194
11. Comma omitted between the city and state	23	17	40
12. Period omitted at the close of a declarative sentence	26	10	36
13. Interrogation point omitted	2	13	15

transposed words, phrases and clauses and appositives not set off by commas, items three and four, show a decrease in frequency of about 25 per cent as compared with item two. Quotationmarks omitted, comma omitted after yes and no and period omitted after abbreviations, items five, six and seven show a decrease of about 14 per cent as compared with items three and four. The three types of error that follow are comma omitted after the name of the person addressed, comma to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence and comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence, items eight, nine and ten, with a decrease in frequency of about 40 per cent as compared with items five, six and seven. The three remaining types of errors: comma omitted between the city and state, period omitted at the end of a declarative sentence, and interrogation point omitted were infrequent (See Table VIII).

Table IX presents the errors in punctuation for grade eight. Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses presents the most frequent number of errors. The three following types of error in order of frequency are parenthetical words not set off by commas, comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence and comma omitted in a series, items two, three and four, with a decrease of about 51 per cent as compared with item one. Comma omitted after the name of the person addressed, quotation marks omitted and appositives not set off by commas, items five, six and seven follow with a decrease of about 60 per cent as compared with items two, three and four. The next three types of errors: unnecessary punctuation, period omitted after abbreviations and period omitted after initials, items eight, nine and ten show a decrease of approximately 26 per

TABLE IX

Errors Made in Punctuation in Written Composition by
Pupils of Grade Eight in Certain Parochial
Schools in the State of Wisconsin

Types of Errors	Number of Errors		
	Boys (100)	Girls (111)	Total (211)
1. Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses	334	473	807
2. Parenthetical words not set off by commas	169	276	445
3. Comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence	141	253	394
4. Comma omitted in a series	159	230	389
5. Comma omitted after the name of the person addressed	151	123	275
6. Quotation marks omitted	82	93	175
7. Appositives not set off by commas	97	55	152
8. Unnecessary punctuation	24	97	121
9. Period omitted after abbreviations	71	41	112
10. Period after initials	70	41	111
11. Period omitted at the close of a declarative sentence	34	12	46
12. Comma to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence	17	27	44
13. Interrogation point omitted	5	32	37
14. Comma omitted between city and state	15	14	29

cent as compared with items five, six and seven. The four remaining types: period omitted at the end of a declarative sentence, comma to separate a quotation from the rest of a sentence, interrogation point and comma omitted between the city and state are infrequent (See Table IX).

Table X presents the errors in capitalization for the pupils of grade six. The total number of errors shows proper nouns to be the most frequent error. The first word of a direct quotation and titles, items two and three, rank next in frequency with a decrease of about 10 per cent as compared with item one. Abbreviations, words relating to God, proper adjectives and unnecessary capitals, items four, five, six and seven follow with a decrease in frequency of about 59 per cent as compared with items two and three. One other type, initials, is infrequent (See Table X).

Table XI presents the errors for the pupils of grade seven in capitalization. According to the total, proper nouns is the predominating error. This is followed by the next two types of error: titles and the first word of a direct quotation, items two and three, with a decrease in frequency of about 25 per cent as compared with item one. Four other types of error follow in order of frequency; proper adjectives, abbreviations, initials and unnecessary capitals, items four, five, six, and seven, with a drop of about 65 per cent as compared with items two and three. Another type of errors, words relating to God, is infrequent (See Table XI).

Table XII presents the errors of the pupils in grade eight in capitalization. Proper nouns shows the greatest number of errors. The following three types: the first word of a direct quotation, proper adjectives

TABLE X

Errors in Capitalization in Written Composition by Pupils
of Grade Six in Certain Parochial Schools in
the State of Wisconsin

Types of Errors	Number of Errors		
	Boys (126)	Girls (146)	Total (272)
1. Proper nouns	333	163	496
2. The first word of a direct quotation	268	215	483
3. Titles	259	187	446
4. Abbreviations	204	149	353
5. Words relating to God	107	87	194
6. Proper adjectives	90	69	159
7. Unnecessary capitals	63	43	106
8. Initials	29	10	39

TABLE XI

Errors in Capitalization in Written Composition by
 Pupils of Grade Seven in Certain Parochial
 Schools in the State of Wisconsin

Types of Errors	Number of Errors		
	Boys (139)	Girls (147)	Total (286)
1. Proper nouns	212	347	559
2. Titles	188	237	425
3. First word of a direct quotation	225	193	418
4. Proper adjectives	118	104	222
5. Abbreviations	107	79	185
6. Initials	77	108	185
7. Unnecessary capitals	52	76	128
8. Words relating to God	10	38	48

TABLE XII

Errors Made in Capitalization in Written Composition
by Pupils of Grade Eight in Certain Parochial
Schools in the State of Wisconsin

Types of Errors	Number of Errors		
	Boys (100)	Girls (111)	Total (211)
1. Proper nouns	218	221	439
2. First word of a direct quotation	107	113	220
3. Proper adjectives	81	125	206
4. Unnecessary capitals	114	86	200
5. Titles	61	95	156
6. Beginning of a sentence	93	46	139
7. Abbreviations	56	68	124
8. Words relating to God	38	48	86
9. The important words in the titles of compositions	18	14	32

and unnecessary capitals, items two, three and four, show a decrease in frequency of about 54 per cent as compared with item one. The following types of error: titles, the beginning of a sentence and abbreviations, items five, six and seven, follow with a decrease in frequency of about 38 per cent as compared with items two, three and four. The other types of error are infrequent (See Table XII).

The writer concludes from her study, sub-topic No. 1, that the following errors predominated in grammar: sentence structure, failure of a verb to agree with its subject, and wrong tense.

Punctuation: Quotation marks omitted, comma omitted in a series, parenthetical words not set off by commas and comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses.

Capitalization: Proper nouns, the first word of a direct quotation, and titles.

Summary of Tables IV, V, VI in
Grammar for All Schools
by Grades

Sentence structure presented the greatest difficulty in all grades.

Wrong tense ranked second in grade eight and third in grades six and seven.

Failure of the verb to agree with its subject was second in grades six and seven and seventh in grade eight.

Misplaced modifiers ranked fourth in grades six and eight, and fifth in grade seven.

Confusion of prepositions was third in grade eight and sixth in grade six and fourth in grade seven.

Wrong form of pronouns was found to rank fifth in grade six and eight, and sixth in grade seven.

Failure of the pronoun to agree with its antecedent ranked seventh in grades six and seven and eighth in grade eight.

Confusion of adverbs and adjectives ranked twelfth in grade six, eighth in grade seven and ninth in grade eight.

Double negatives ranked ninth in grades six and seven, and eleventh in grade eight.

Possessive sign omitted ranked eighth in grade six, twelfth in grade seven and fifteenth in grade eight (See Tables IV, V, VI).

Summary of Tables VII, VIII,
and IX in Punctuation for
All Schools by Grades

The most frequent errors in punctuation ranked as follows:

Comma omitted in a series ranked second in grade six, first in grade seven and fourth in grade eight.

Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases, and clauses ranked fourth in grade six, third in grade seven, and first in grade eight.

Quotation marks omitted was first in grade six, fifth in grade seven and sixth in grade eight.

Parenthetical words not set off by commas ranked eighth in grade six, and second in grades seven and eight.

Period omitted after abbreviations ranked third in grade six, seventh in grade seven and ninth in grade eight.

Comma omitted after the name of the person addressed ranked sixth in grade six, eighth in grade seven and fifth in grade eight.

Comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence ranked ninth in grade six, tenth in grade seven and third in grade eight.

Appositives not set off by commas ranked twelfth in grade six, fourth in grade seven and seventh in grade eight.

Period omitted at the close of a declarative sentence was tenth in grade six, twelfth in grade seven and eleventh in grade eight (See Tables VII, VIII, and IX).

Summary of Tables X, XI, XIII
in Capitalization for All
Schools by Grades

The most frequent errors in capitalization ranked as follows:

Proper nouns ranked first in grades six, seven and eight.

The first word of a direct quotation ranked second in grade six and eight, and third in grade seven.

Proper adjectives ranked sixth in grade six, fourth in grade seven, and third in grade eight.

Abbreviations ranked as fourth in grade six, fifth in grade seven, and seventh in grade eight.

Unnecessary capitals ranked seventh in grades six and seven and fourth in grade eight.

Titles ranked third in grade six, second in grade seven and fifth in grade eight.

Words relating to God ranked fifth in grade six and eighth in grades seven and eight (See Tables X, XI, and XII).

TABLE XIII

Errors Made in Grammar in Written Composition
by Pupils in Grade Six, Ranked According
to Total Pupils for All Schools and
for Each School

Errors in Grammar Grade Six	Rank for all Pupils	Beloit	F. du L.	N. London	Sheb.	T. Riv.	T. Riv.	Wau.
1. Sentence structure	1	1	8	1	2	2	4	1
2. Failure of verb to agree with subject	2	4	1	5	4	1	3	5
3. Wrong tense	3	5	2	8	1	15	1	3
4. Misplaced modifier	4	2	9	4	9	3	10	9
5. Wrong form of pronoun	5	11	10	3	3	5	5	4
6. Confusion of preposition	6	8	7	2	0	8	2	2
7. Failure of pronoun to agree with antecedent	7	7	5	9	7	9	6	13
8. Possessive sign omitted	8	3	13	12	10	4	17	19
9. Double negative	9	15	3	6	11	12	8	12
10. Confusion of past tense and past participle	10	13	6	7	16	13	7	8
11. Wrong use of pronoun <u>their</u> and adverb <u>there</u>	11	6	19	13	6	11	19	15
12. Confusion of adject- ive and adverb	12	9	14	11	13	7	18	6
13. Formation of plural	13	10	15	15	8	6	12	17
14. Apostrophe omitted	14	12	16	19	5	17	16	11
15. Double comparison	15	16	11	17	12	10	13	7
16. Wrong verb	16	17	4	18	18	19	9	18
17. Wrong case	17	14	17	10	14	16	11	14
18. Wrong mood	18	18	12	14	17	14	14	16
19. Confusion of compa- rative and superla- tive	19	19	18	16	15	18	15	10

TABLE XIV

Errors Made in Grammar in Written Composition by Pupils
in Grade Seven, Ranked According to Total Pupils
for All Schools and for Each School

Errors in Grammar Grade Seven	Rank for all Pupils	Beloit	F.du L.	N.Lond.	Sheb.	T.Riv.	T.Riv.	Waun.
1.Sentence structure	1	1	7	1	1	4	9	3
2.Failure of verb to agree with subject	2	8	4	3	4	3	4	2
3.Wrong tense	3	2	3	12	2	1	2	4
4.Confusion of prep- osition	4	3	2	4	13	6	8	1
5.Misplaced modifier	5	9	1	10	3	5	1	8
6.Wrong form of pronoun	6	7	6	2	16	2	5	7
7.Failure of pronoun	7	10	5	13	6	10	7	5
8.Confusion of adverb and adjective	8	4	13	6	11	7	6	6
9.Double negative	9	12	9	9	15	16	3	15
10.Wrong verb	10	5	11	5	10	9	10	13
11.Wrong mood	11	14	15	8	5	8	10	11
12.Possessive sign omitted	12	6	12	14	7	11	13	14
13.Confusion of past tense and past participle	13	11	6	11	12	13	11	12
14.Confusion of com- parative and super- lative	14	13	16	7	14	15	15	9
15.Formation of plural	17	0	14	15	9	14	14	16
16.Apostrophes omitted	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
17.Wrong use of pronoun <u>their</u> and adverb <u>there</u>	16	0	0	0	8	0	0	0
18.Double comparison	18	0	0	0	0	12	0	0
19.Dangling participle	19	0	8	0	0	0	0	0

TABLE XV

Errors Made in Grammar in Written Composition by Pupils
in Grade Eight, Ranked According to Total
Pupils for All Schools and Each School

Errors in Grammar Rank								
Grade Eight	for all							
	Pupils	Beloit	F. du L.	N. Lond.	Sheb.	T. Riv.	T. Riv.	Waun.
1. Sentence structure	1	2	3	7	9	1	1	2
2. Wrong tense	2	1	2	0	1	3	6	5
3. Confusion of preposition	3	6	6	5	0	2	5	1
4. Misplaced modifier	4	9	1	2	2	9	4	8
5. Wrong form of pronoun	5	3	10	4	5	6	7	4
6. Confusion of past tense and past participle	6	12	5	1	8	0	3	10
7. Failure of verb to agree with subject	7	8	11	11	3	7	2	6
8. Failure of pronoun to agree with antecedent	8	5	7	10	4	11	10	7
9. Confusion of adjective and adverb	9	7	9	9	11	10	8	3
10. Formation of plural	10	11	0	0	6	4	0	0
11. Double negative	11	12	0	6	14	5	0	11
12. Wrong verb	12	10	0	3	0	0	9	0
13. Wrong mood	13	14	4	0	12	12	0	0
14. Wrong use of pronoun <u>their</u> and adverb <u>there</u>	14	0	0	0	10	8	0	0
15. Possessive sign omitted	15	0	0	0	7	0	0	0

TABLE XV (continued)

Errors in Grammar		Rank for all						
Grade Eight	Pupils	Beloit	F. du L.	N. Lond.	Sheb.	T. Riv.	T. Riv.	Waun.
16. Wrong case	16	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
17. Confusion of comparative and superlative	17	0	0	8	0	0	0	0
18. Dangling participles	18	0	8	0	0	0	0	0
19. Apostrophe omitted	19	0	0	0	15	0	0	9
20. Double comparison	20	13	0	0	13	0	0	12

Summary of Tables XIII, XIV, XV of Errors Made in Grammar in
Written Composition in Grades Six, Seven and Eight Ranked
According to Total Pupils for All Schools and for
Each School

Grade Six: (Table XIII)

Sentence structure ranked first in three schools, second in two schools, third in one school and eighth in one school.

Failure of a verb to agree with its subject ranked first in two schools, second in one school, third in one school, fourth in two schools and fifth in two schools.

Wrong tense ranked first in two schools, second in one school, third in one school, fifth in one school, eighth in one school, and fifteenth in one school.

Misplaced modifiers ranked second in one school, third in one school, fourth in one school, ninth in three schools, and tenth in one school.

Wrong form of pronoun ranked third in two schools, fourth in one school, fifth in two schools, tenth in one school, and eleventh in one school.

Confusion of prepositions ranked second in three schools, seventh in one school, eighth in two schools, and first in one school.

Failure of a pronoun to agree with its antecedent ranked fifth in one school, sixth in one school, seventh in two schools, ninth in two schools, and thirteenth in one school.

Possessive sign omitted ranked third in one school, fourth in one school, tenth in one school, twelfth in one school, thirteenth in one school, seventeenth in one school, and nineteenth in one school.

Grade Seven: (Table XIV)

Sentence structure ranked first in three schools, third in one school, third in two schools, fourth in three schools, and eighth in one school.

Wrong tense ranked first in one school, second in three schools, third in one school, fourth in one school, and twelfth in one school.

Confusion of prepositions ranked first in one school, second in one school, third in one school, fourth in one school, sixth in one school, eighth in one school, thirteenth in one school.

Misplaced modifiers ranked first in two schools, third in one school, fifth in one school, eighth in one school, ninth in one school, and tenth in one school.

Wrong form of pronouns ranked second in two schools, fifth in one school, sixth in one school, seventh in two schools, and sixteenth in one school.

Failure of the pronoun to agree with its antecedent ranked fifth in two schools, sixth in one school, seventh in one school, tenth in two schools, and thirteenth in one school.

Confusion of adjectives and adverbs ranked fourth in one school, sixth in three schools, seventh in one school, eleventh in one school, and thirteenth in one school.

Grade Eight: (Table XV)

Sentence structure ranked first in two schools, second in two schools, third in one school, seventh in one school, and ninth in one school.

Wrong tense ranked first in two schools, second in one school, third in one school, fifth in one school, sixth in one school, and zero in one school.

Confusion of prepositions ranked first in one school, second in one school, fifth in two schools, sixth in two schools, and zero in one school.

Misplaced modifiers ranked first in one school, second in two schools, fourth in one school, eighth in one school, and ninth in one school.

Wrong form of pronouns ranked third in one school, fourth in two schools, fifth in one school, sixth in one school, seventh in one school, and tenth in one school.

Confusion of past tense ranked first in one school, third in one school, fifth in one school, eighth in one school, tenth in one school, twelfth in one school, and zero in one school.

Failure of the verb to agree with its subject ranked second in one school, third in one school, sixth in one school, seventh in one school, eighth in one school, and eleventh in two schools.

TABLE XVI

Errors Made in Punctuation in Written Composition by Pupils
in Grade Six, Ranked According to Total Pupils for
All Schools and for Each School

Errors in Rank Punctuation for Grade Six all Pupils	Beloit	F. du L.	N. Lond.	Sheb.	T. Riv.	T. Riv.	Waun.
1. Quotation mark omitted 1	3	4	7	1	2	1	3
2. Comma omitted in a series 2	4	1	6	2	3	4	1
3. Period omitted after abbrevi- ation 3	6	6	2	7	1	8	4
4. Comma after transposed words, phrases, clauses 4	8	2	3	5	5	3	2
5. Unnecessary punctuation 5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
6. Comma omitted after name of person addressed 6	2	5	9	9	7	9	7
7. Comma omitted after city and state 7	5	9	1	11	4	0	0
8. Parenthetical words not set off 8	0	0	4	3	0	0	0
9. Comma between clauses of compound sen- tence 9	10	8	5	10	8	5	6

TABLE XVI (continued)

Errors in Punctuation Grade Six	Rank for all Pupils	Beloit	F. du L.	N. Lond.	Sheb.	T. Riv.	T. Riv.	Waun.
10. Period omitted at close of a declarative sentence	10	9	7	8	9	6	2	5
11. Comma to separate quotation from rest of sentence	11	7	0	0	0	0	7	0
12. Appositives not set off by comma	12	0	10	0	4	0	0	0

TABLE XVII

Errors Made in Punctuation in Written Composition by Pupils
in Grade Seven, Ranked According to Total Pupils for
All Schools and for Each School

Errors in Punctuation Grade Seven	Rank for all Pupils	Beloit	F. du L.	N. Lond.	Sheb.	T. Riv.	T. Riv.	Wau.
1. Comma omitted in series	1	1	1	6	1	3	2	3
2. Parenthetical words not set off by comma	2	3	6	1	3	0	3	2
3. Comma omitted after trans- posed words, phrases, and clauses	3	4	2	3	5	6	6	0
4. Appositives not set off by commas	4	6	4	0	2	0	0	5
5. Quotation marks omitted	5	9	8	4	6	1	8	1
6. Comma omitted after <u>yes</u> and <u>no</u>	6	0	3	0	4	0	5	0
7. Period omitted after abbreviation	7	6	5	0	0	2	7	6
8. Comma omitted after name of person addressed	8	2	7	5	0	4	9	7
9. Comma omitted to separate quotation from rest of sentence	9	7	10	0	7	0	1	4
10. Comma omitted between clauses of compound sentence	10	10	9	8	10	5	4	9
11. Comma omitted between city and state	11	5	0	2	8	0	0	0
12. Period at close of a declarative sentence	12	9	0	7	9	0	0	0
13. Interrogation point omitted	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	8

TABLE XVIII

Errors Made in Punctuation in Written Composition by Pupils in
Grade Eight, Ranked According to Total Pupils for All
Schools and for Each School

Errors in Punctuation Grade Eight	Rank for all Pupils	Bel.	F.du	L.N.	Lond.	Sheb.	T.Riv.	T.Riv.	Waun.
1. Comma omitted after trans- posed words, phrases and clauses	1	1	3	1	1	4	5	7	
2. Parenthetical words not set off by commas	2	6	1	2	2	0	0	1	
3. Comma between clauses of a compound sentence	3	2	0	0	0	2	1	6	
4. Comma omitted in a series	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	8	
5. Comma omitted after name of the person addressed	5	10	2	4	11	1	3	9	
6. Quotation mark omitted	6	7	7	7	7	7	2	2	
7. Appositive not set off by comma	7	5	5	8	5	6	0	12	
8. Unnecessary punctuation	8	2	0	0	6	0	0	0	
9. Period omitted after abbreviation	9	0	6	6	12	5	0	10	
10. Period omitted after abbreviation	10	0	0	0	4	0	0	3	
11. Period omitted at close of a declarative sentence	11	8	0	0	8	0	0	11	
12. Comma omitted to separate quotation from rest of sentence	12	0	0	0	10	0	0	4	
13. Interrogation point omitted	13	9	0	0	0	0	0	5	
14. Comma between city and state	14	0	0	5	9	0	0	0	

Summary of Tables XVI, XVII, XVIII of Errors Made in Punctuation
in Written Composition in Grades Six, Seven and Eight
Ranked According to Total Pupils for All Schools
and for Each School

Grade Six: (Table XVI)

Quotation marks ranked first in two schools, second in one school, third in two schools, fourth in one school, and seventh in one school.

Comma omitted in a series ranked first in two schools, second in one school, third in one school, fourth in two schools, and sixth in one school.

Period omitted after abbreviations ranked first in one school, second in one school, fourth in one school, sixth in two schools, seventh in one school, and eighth in one school.

Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses ranked second in two schools, third in two schools, fifth in two schools, and eighth in one school.

Comma omitted after the name of the person addressed ranked second in one school, fifth in one school, seventh in two schools, ninth in three schools.

Comma omitted between the city and state ranked first in one school, fourth in one school, fifth in one school, ninth in one school, eleventh in one school, and zero in two schools.

Grade Seven: (Table XVII)

Comma omitted in a series ranked first in three schools, second in one school, third in two schools and sixth in one school.

Parenthetical words not set off by commas ranked first in one school, second in one school, third in two schools, sixth in one school, and zero in one school.

Comma after transposed words, phrases and clauses ranked second in one school, third in one school, fourth in one school, fifth in one school, sixth in two schools, and zero in one school.

Appositives not set off ranked second in one school, fourth in one school, fifth in one school, sixth in one school, and zero in three schools.

Quotation marks omitted ranked first in two schools, fourth in one school, sixth in one school, eighth in two schools, and ninth in one school.

Comma omitted after yes and no ranked third in one school, fourth in one school, fifth in one school, and zero in four schools.

Grade Eight: (Table XVIII)

Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses ranked first in three schools, third in one school, fourth in one school, fifth in one school, and seventh in one school.

Parenthetical words not set off by commas ranked first in two schools, second in two schools, sixth in one school, and zero in two schools.

Comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence ranked first in one school, second in two schools, sixth in one school, and zero in three schools.

Comma omitted in a series ranked third in three schools, fourth in three schools, and eighth in one school.

Comma after the name of the person addressed ranked first in one

school, second in one school, third in one school, fourth in one school, ninth in one school, tenth in one school, and eleventh in one school.

Quotation marks omitted ranked second in two schools, seventh in five schools.

TABLE XIX

Errors Made in Capitalization in Written Composition by

Pupils in Grade Six, Ranked According to Total

Pupils for All Schools and Each School

Errors in Capitalization Rank for Grade Six	all Pupils	Bel.	F.du	L.N.	Lond.	Sheb.	T.Riv.	T.Riv.	Waun.
1. Proper nouns	1	1	1	2	1	4	7	3	
2. First word of a direct quotation	2	2	2	5	2	1	2	7	
3. Titles	3	3	5	1	3	3	1	2	
4. Abbreviations	4	5	6	4	4	2	4	1	
5. Words relating to God	5	7	4	3	5	5	5	6	
6. Proper adjectives	6	8	3	8	6	7	6	5	
7. Unnecessary capitals	7	6	0	7	0	6	0	4	
8. Initials	6	0	0	6	0	0	0	8	
9. Important words in the title of compositions	9	4	0	0	7	0	3	0	

TABLE XX

Errors Made in Capitalization in Written Composition by
 Pupils in Grade Seven, Ranked According to Total
 Pupils for All Schools and for Each School

Errors in Capitalization Grade Seven	Rank for all Pupils	Bel.	F.	du	L.	N.	Lond.	Sheb.	T.	Riv.	T.	Riv.	Wan.
1. Proper nouns	1	2	2	4	1	1	3	2					
2. Titles	2	3	1	2	3	5	2	4					
3. First word of a direct quotation	3	4	3	3	2	2	1	8					
4. Proper adjectives	4	6	4	6	4	3	7	7					
5. Abbreviations	5	0	5	5	0	4	4	6					
6. Initials	6	7	6	1	6	6	6	1					
7. Unnecessary capitals	7	1	0	0	0	0	0	3					
8. Words relating to God	8	5	0	0	5	0	0	5					
9. Important words in the titles of Compositions	9	0	0	0	0	0	5	0					

TABLE XXI

Errors Made in Capitalization in Written Composition by Pupils
in Grade Eight, Ranked According to Total Pupils for
All Schools and for Each School

Errors in Capitalization Grade Eight	Rank of all Pupils	Bel.	F.	du	L.N.	Lond.	Sheb.	T.Riv.	T.Riv.	Waun.
1. Proper nouns	1	1	1	1	3	3	0	5	4	
2. First word of a direct quotation	2	0	4	1	2	2	2	7	0	
3. Proper adjectives	3	2	0	2	4	3	4	4	1	
4. Unnecessary capitals	4	0	0	0	0	1	1	0		
5. Titles	5	3	2	0	5	0	2	3		
6. Beginning of a sentence	6	4	0	0	1	0	0	0		
7. Abbreviations	7	0	3	6	7	4	6	5		
8. Words relating to God	8	0	0	7	6	5	3	2		
9. Important words in titles of compositions	9	0	0	5	0	0	8	0		
10. Initials	10	0	0	4	0	0	0	0		

Summary of Tables XIX, XX, XXI of Errors Made in Capitalization in Written Composition in Grades Six, Seven, and Eight Ranked According to Total Pupils for all Schools and Each School

Grade Six: (Table XIX)

Proper nouns ranked first in three schools, second in one school, fourth in one school and seventh in one school.

First word of a direct quotation ranked first in one school, second in four schools, second in five schools, and third in seven schools.

Titles ranked first in two schools, second in one school, third in three schools, fifth in one school.

Abbreviations ranked first in one school, second in one school, fourth in three schools, fifth in one school, and sixth in one school.

Words relating to God ranked third in one school, fourth in one school, fifth in three schools, sixth in one school, and seventh in one school.

Proper adjectives ranked third in one school, fifth in one school, sixth in two schools, seventh in one school, and eighth in two schools.

Grade Seven: (Table XX)

Proper nouns ranked first in two schools, second in three schools, third in one school, fourth in one school.

Titles ranked first in one school, second in two schools, third in two schools, fourth in one school, and fifth in one school.

First word in a direct quotation ranked first in one school, second in two schools, third in two schools, fourth in one school, and eighth in one school.

Proper adjectives ranked third in one school, fourth in two schools, sixth in two schools, and seventh in two schools.

Abbreviations ranked fourth in two schools, fifth in two schools, sixth in one school, and zero in two schools.

Initials ranked first in two schools, sixth in four schools, and seventh in one school.

Grade Eight: (Table XXI)

Proper nouns ranked first in two schools, third in two schools, fourth in one school, fifth in one school, and zero in one school.

The first word of a direct quotation ranked first in one school, second in two schools, fourth in one school, seventh in one school, and zero in two schools.

Proper adjectives ranked first in one school, second in two schools, third in one school, fourth in two schools, and zero in one school.

Titles ranked second in two schools, third in two schools, fifth in one school and zero in two schools.

Abbreviations ranked third in one school, fourth in one school, fifth in one school, sixth in two schools, seventh in one school, and zero in one school.

Rules Violated in Grammar in the Present Study in Order
of Frequency Relating Only to Table IV

The writer will next turn her attention to the second phase of her problem, namely, what rules were violated in grammar by pupils of the various grades in the present study. The following relates to the pupils in grade six:

1. Sentence structure

A sentence is the expression of a complete thought. It must contain a subject and a predicate.

2. Failure of a verb to agree with its subject

A verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

3. Wrong tense

Verbs have forms to indicate the present, past, future tense, present perfect, past perfect and future perfect tense.

4. Misplaced modifiers

Modifiers should be placed as near as possible to the word of words they modify. No modifier should be placed between to and its infinitive.

5. Wrong form of pronouns

The subject and predicate pronoun are in the nominative case.

The object of a transitive verb and the object of a preposition are in the objective case.

6. Confusion of prepositions

Prepositions show various distinctions in use and meaning which

must be learned by practice. The preposition in and into was a frequent error.

7. Failure of a pronoun to agree with its antecedent

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and case.

8. Confusion of adjectives and adverbs

An adjective modifies a noun; an adverb modifies a verb, adjective or another adverb should be taught.

9. Double negative

Two negatives contradict each other and make an affirmative.

10. Wrong verbs

A transitive verb requires an object to complete its meaning; an intransitive verb does not require an object to complete its meaning.

11. Wrong moods

Most errors are due to the use of the subjunctive mood. The subjunctive is a very technical thing. Charters says: (Grammar Curriculum, Sixteenth Yearbook) "To understand it thoroughly a child must have a feeling for language seldom possessed by young children."

12. Possessive sign omitted

The possessive case of most singular nouns has 's. Plural nouns ending in s add an apostrophe to denote possession. Plural nouns not ending in s take 's.

13. Confusion of past tense and past participle

Past tense has been stated. The past participle is that part of the verb form which is used after I have to form the perfect tense.

14. Confusion of comparative and superlative

The comparative is used in comparing two persons or things and the superlative is used in comparing more than two things.

15. Formation of plurals

Most nouns form their plural by adding s or es to the singular. Nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant change y to i and add es to form the plural.

The words half, wife, knife, life, and a few others change f to v before adding the suffix s or es.

A few nouns form their plural in en.

A few nouns form their plural by a change of vowel.

16. Apostrophe omitted

The apostrophe is used to denote possession and in contractions.

17. Wrong use of their and there

Their is a pronoun and there an adverb.

18. Double comparisons

The comparative degree of an adjective is usually formed by adding er to the positive. There are a few irregular forms.

The superlative is usually formed by adding est. There are a few irregular forms.

Many adjectives of two syllables, and most adjectives of three or more syllables, are compared by the use of more and most. The comparative and not the superlative is used in comparing two persons or things. The superlative is used to compare one person or thing with two or more others.

19. Dangling participles

The participle should be connected with the rest of the sentence.

The first twelve rules in grammar, according to the total errors (Table IV) made by pupils of grade six in the writer's study need stressing in order to eliminate these errors.

Rules Violated in Grammar in the Present Study in Order of Frequency Relating Only to Table V

What rules were violated in grammar by the pupils of grade seven in the present study?

1. Sentence structure

A sentence is the expression of a complete thought. It must contain a subject and a predicate.

2. Failure of a verb to agree with its subject

A verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

3. Wrong tense

Verbs have forms to indicate the present, past, future tense, present perfect, past perfect and future perfect tense.

4. Confusion of prepositions

Prepositions show various distinctions in use and meaning which

must be learned by practice. The preposition in and into was a frequent error.

5. Misplaced modifiers

Modifiers should be placed as near as possible to the word or words they modify. No modifiers should be placed between to and its infinitive.

6. Wrong form of pronouns

The subject and predicate pronoun are in the nominative case. The object of a transitive verb and the object of a preposition are in the objective case.

7. Failure of a pronoun to agree with its antecedent

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number and case.

8. Possessive sign omitted

The possessive case of most singular nouns has 's. Plural nouns ending in s add an apostrophe to denote possession. Plural nouns not ending in s take 's.

9. Double negatives

Two negatives contradict each other and make an affirmative.

10. Confusion of past tense and past participle

Past tense has been stated. The past participle is that part of the verb form which is used after I have to form the perfect tense.

11. Wrong use of the pronoun their and the adverb there

Their is a pronoun and there is an adverb .

12. Confusion of adjectives and adverbs

An adjective modifies a noun; and adverb modifies a verb, adjective or another adverb should be taught.

13. Formation of plurals

Most nouns form their plural by adding s or es to the singular. Nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant change y to i and add es to form the plural.

The words half, wife, knife, life, and a few others change f to v before adding the suffix s or es.

A few nouns form their plural in en.

A few nouns form their plural by a change of vowel.

14. Apostrophe omitted

The apostrophe is used to denote possession and in contractions.

15. Double comparisons

The comparative degree of an adjective is usually formed by adding er to the positive. There are a few irregular forms.

The superlative is usually formed by adding est. There are a few irregular forms.

Many adjectives of two syllables, and most adjectives of three or more syllables, are compared by the use of more and most.

The comparative and not the superlative is used in comparing two persons or things.

The superlative is used to compare one person or thing with two or more persons or things.

16. Wrong verbs

A transitive verb requires an object to complete its meaning; an intransitive verb does not require an object to complete its meaning.

17. Wrong case

The subject of a sentence is in the nominative case.

18. Wrong moods

Most errors are due to the use of the subjunctive mood. The subjunctive is a very technical thing. Charters says: (Grammar Curriculu, Sixteenth Yearbook) "To understand it thoroughly a child must have a feeling for language seldom possessed by young children."

19. Confusion of comparative and superlative

The comparative is used in comparing two persons or things.

The superlative is used in comparing more than two things.

The first eight rules in grammar, according to the total errors (Table V), made by the pupils of grade seven in the present study need special drill in order to eliminate these errors.

Rules Violated in Grammar in the Present Study in Order
of Frequency Relating Only to Table VI

What rules were violated in grammar by the pupils of grade eight in the present study?

1. Sentence structure

A sentence is the expression of a complete thought. It must contain a subject and a predicate.

2. Wrong tense

Verbs have forms to indicate the present, past, future tense, present perfect, past perfect and future perfect tense.

3. Confusion of prepositions

Prepositions show various distinctions in use and meaning which must be learned by practice. The preposition in and into was a frequent error.

4. Misplaced modifiers

Modifiers should be placed as near as possible to the word or words they modify. No modifier should be placed between to and its infinitive.

5. Wrong form of pronouns

The subject and predicate pronoun are in the nominative case. The object of a transitive verb and the object of a preposition are in the objective case.

6. Confusion of past tense and past participles

Past tense has been stated. The past participle is that part

of the verb form which is used after I have to form the perfect tense.

7. Failure of a verb to agree with its subject

A verb must agree with its subject in person and gender

8. Failure of a pronoun to agree with its antecedent

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number and case.

9. Confusion of adverbs and adjectives

An adjective modifies a noun; an adverb modifies a verb, adjective or another adverb should be taught.

10. Formation of plurals

Most nouns form their plural by adding s or es to the singular.

Nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant change y to i and add es to form the plural.

The words half, wife, knife, life, and a few others change f to v before adding the suffix s or es.

A few nouns form their plural in en.

A few nouns form their plural by a change of vowel.

11. Double negatives

Two negatives contradict each other and make an affirmative.

12. Wrong verbs

A transitive verb requires an object to complete its meaning; an intransitive verb does not require an object to complete its meaning.

13. Wrong moods

Most errors are due to the use of the subjunctive mood. The subjunctive is a very technical thing. Charters says: (Grammar Curriculum, Sixteenth Yearbook) "To understand it thoroughly a child must have a feeling for language seldom possessed by young children."

14. Wrong use of their and there

Their is a pronoun and there an adverb.

15. Possessive sign omitted

The possessive case of most singular nouns has 's. Plural nouns ending in s add an apostrophe to denote possession.

Plural nouns not ending in s take 's.

16. Wrong case

The subject of a sentence is in the nominative case.

17. Confusion of comparative and superlative.

The comparative is used in comparing two persons or things and the superlative is used in comparing more than two things.

18. Dangling participles

The participle should be connected with the rest of the sentence.

19. Apostrophe omitted

The apostrophe is used to denote possession and in contractions.

20. Double comparisons

The comparative degree of an adjective is usually formed by adding er to the positive. There are a few irregular forms.

The superlative is usually formed by adding est. There are a

few irregular forms.

Many adjectives of two syllables, and most adjectives of three or more syllables, are compared by the use of more and most.

The comparative and not the superlative is used in comparing two persons or things.

The superlative is used to compare one person or things with two or more others.

The first seven rules in grammar, according to the total errors (Table VI) made by pupils of grade six in the writer's study need stressing in order to eliminate these errors.

Rules Violated in the Present Study in Punctuation in Order
of Frequency Relating Only to Table VII

What rules were violated in punctuation by the pupils of grade six in the present study?

1. Quotation marks omitted

Place quotation marks before and after words of a direct quotation.

2. Comma omitted in a series

The word and is seldom used in a series except between the last two words.

3. Period omitted after abbreviations

Abbreviated words should be followed by a period.

4. Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses

Place a comma after transposed words, phrases and clauses.

5. Unnecessary punctuation

6. A comma omitted after the name of the person addressed

A comma should be placed after the name of the person addressed.

7. Comma omitted between the city and state

A comma should be placed between the city and state.

8. Parenthetical words not set off by commas

Words not necessary in the sentence should be set off by commas.

9. Comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence.

The clauses of a compound sentence should be separated by a comma.

10. A period omitted at the close of a declarative sentence

This is often due to oversight.

11. Comma to separate quotation from the rest of the sentence

A comma is generally used to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence.

12. Appositives not set off by commas

Appositives should be set off by commas.

The first nine rules in punctuation, according to the total errors (Table VII) made by the pupils of grade six in the present study need special drill in order to eliminate these errors.

Rules Violated in the Present Study in Punctuation in
Order of Frequency Relating Only to Table VIII

What rules were violated in punctuation by the pupils of grade seven in the present study?

1. Comma omitted in a series

The word and is seldom used in a series except between the last two words.

2. Parenthetical words not set off by commas

Words not necessary in the sentence should be set off by commas.

3. Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses

Place a comma after transposed words, phrases and clauses.

4. Appositives not set off by commas

Appositives should be set off by commas.

5. Quotation marks omitted

Place quotation marks before and after words of a direct quotation.

6. Comma omitted after yes and no

A comma should be placed after yes and no.

7. Period omitted after abbreviations

Abbreviated words should be followed by a period.

8. A comma omitted after the name of the person addressed

A comma should be placed after the name of the person addressed.

9. Comma to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence

A comma is generally used to separate a quotation from the rest

of the sentence.

10. A comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence

The clauses of a compound sentence should be separated by a comma.

11. Comma omitted between city and state

A comma should be placed between city and state.

12. A period omitted at the close of a declarative sentence

This is often due to oversight.

13. Interrogation point omitted

Place an interrogation point at the end of every interrogative sentence.

The first eight rules in punctuation, according to the total errors (Table VIII) made by pupils of grade seven in the writer's study need special drill in order to eliminate these errors.

Rules Violated in the Present Study in Punctuation in Order of Frequency Relating Only to Table IX

What rules were violated in punctuation by the pupils of grade eight in the present study?

1. Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses

Place a comma after transposed words, phrases and clauses.

2. Parenthetical words not set off by commas

Words not necessary in the sentence should be set off by commas.

3. Comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence

The clauses of a compound sentence should be separated by a comma.

4. Comma omitted in a series

The word and is seldom used in a series except between the last two words.

5. A comma omitted after the name of the person addressed

A comma should be placed after the name of the person addressed.

6. Quotation marks omitted

Place quotation marks before and after words of a direct quotation.

7. Appositives not set off by commas

Appositives should be set off by commas.

8. Unnecessary punctuation

9. Period omitted after abbreviations

Abbreviated words should be followed by a period.

10. Period omitted after initials

Every initial should be followed by a period.

11. A period omitted at the close of a declarative sentence

This is often due to oversight.

12. Comma to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence

A comma is generally used to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence.

13. Interrogation point omitted

Place an interrogation point at the end of every interrogative sentence.

14. Comma omitted between city and state

A comma should be placed between city and state.

The first five rules in punctuation, according to the total errors (Table IX) made by the pupils of grade eight in the present study need special drill in order to eliminate these errors.

Rules Violated in the Present Study in Capitalization in

Order of Frequency Relating Only to Table X

What rules were violated in capitalization by the pupils of grade six in the present study?

1. Proper nouns

Proper nouns should be capitalized.

2. The first word of a direct quotation

The first word of a direct quotation should be capitalized.

3. Titles

Titles should be capitalized.

4. Abbreviations

Abbreviations should be capitalized.

5. Words relating to God

Words relating to God should be capitalized.

6. Proper adjectives

Adjectives derived from proper nouns should be capitalized.

7. Unnecessary capitals

Avoid unnecessary capitals.

8. Initials

Initials should be capitalized.

The first six rules in capitalization, according to the total errors (Table X) made by pupils of grade six in the writer's study need stressing in order to eliminate these errors.

Rules Violated in the Present Study in Capitalization in Order
of Frequency Relating Only to Table XI

What rules were violated in capitalization by the Pupils of grade seven in the present study?

1. Proper nouns

Proper nouns should be capitalized.

2. Titles

Titles should be capitalized.

3. The first word of a direct quotation

The first word of a direct quotation should be capitalized.

4. Proper adjectives

Adjectives derived from proper nouns should be capitalized.

5. Abbreviations

Abbreviations should be capitalized

6. Initials

Initial should be capitalized.

7. Unnecessary capitals

Avoid unnecessary capitals.

8. Words relating to God

Words relating to God should be capitalized.

9. The important words in the titles of compositions

The important words in the titles of compositions should be

capitalized.

The first four rules in grammar, according to the total errors (Table XI) made by pupils of grade seven in the writer's study need stressing in order to eliminate these errors.

Rules Violated in the Present Study in
Capitalization in Order of Frequency
Relating Only to Table XII

What rules were violated in capitalization by the pupils of grade eight in the present study?

1. Proper nouns

Proper nouns should be capitalized.

2. The first word of a direct quotation

The first word of a direct quotation should be capitalized.

3. Proper adjectives

Adjectives derived from proper nouns should be capitalized.

4. Unnecessary capitals

Avoid unnecessary capitals.

5. Titles

Titles should be capitalized.

6. Beginning of a sentence

Every sentence should begin with a capital letter.

7. Abbreviations

Abbreviations should be capitalized.

8. Words relating to God

Words relating to God should be capitalized.

9. The important words in the titles of compositions

The important words in the titles of compositions should be capitalized.

The first three rules in capitalization, according to the total errors (Table XII) made by pupils of grade eight in the writer's study need stressing in order to eliminate these errors.

The writer concludes from her study, sub-topic No. 2, that the above rules in grammar, punctuation and capitalization are needed in the curriculum in the schools in which the study was made so that pupils may correct their errors.

The writer will next discuss the third phase of her problem, namely; what items in grammar, punctuation, and capitalization were omitted from the course of study for the schools involved in the present study, which the pupils' errors indicated should have been included in the course of study in question.

An analysis of the course revealed that there were no such omissions relative to grammar, capitalization, and punctuation. The persons responsible for the construction for this course of study in English which is used in the schools involved in the present study were evidently well aware of the nature of pupils' probable errors and difficulties in the field of English composition.

The fourth phase of the writer's study relates to the items in grammar,

punctuation, and capitalization which were included in the course of study, but which were apparently unnecessary from the point of view of instruction, due to the fact that errors in their use were infrequent.

The following items in grammar in grade six could apparently be omitted from the course of study. Grade six: Wrong moods and wrong case occurred relatively seldom. The writer thinks these two items, wrong moods and wrong case are important and if the errors in this study were infrequent, the frequency might be greater in other English writing by sixth grade pupils.

Grade seven: Double comparisons; formulation of plurals; dangling participles; wrong use of the pronoun their and the adverb there; and the omission of the apostrophe. These errors were infrequent.

Grade eight: Double comparisons; omission of the apostrophe; dangling participles and wrong case. Errors involving the above were relatively few.

The following items in punctuation could be omitted:

Grade six: appositives not set off by commas; comma to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence; and comma omitted between the city and state.

Grade seven: Period omitted at the end of a declarative sentence; comma omitted between city and state; comma omitted between the month and year; and interrogation mark.

Grade eight: Comma to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence; period omitted at the end of a declarative sentence; appositives not set off by commas; comma between the city and state; interrogation

mark. These types were infrequent.

The following items in capitalization could be omitted;

Grade six: No omissions

Grade seven: The important words in titles of compositions and words relating to God.

Grade eight: Important words in titles of compositions, titles, proper adjectives and words relating to God.

The writer's conclusion for sub-topic No. 4 is as follows:

The items which apparently appear unnecessary because of infrequency of error, should not be excluded from the course of study. If other subjects were given to these pupils for written composition, perhaps, the frequency of error would be greater. Moreover, constructive exercises to stimulate freer use of these items should be employed to find if any errors occur and if their frequency is greater than in the present study. Perhaps in other assignments in written composition the frequency of error would be greater.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

In this concluding chapter the writer will endeavor to summarize the outstanding conclusions of the literature in the field of the present study as well as the conclusions of her own study.

The writer will present these conclusions and applications under headings corresponding with the four phases of her problem namely:

(a) The types of errors which predominated in the pupils' compositions;

(b) The rules in grammar, punctuation and capitalization which were violated by the pupils;

(c) The items which were omitted from the course of study and which, on the basis of the errors made by the pupils, required emphasis in instruction;

(d) The items which were included in the course of study in English but which on the basis of the pupils' errors, apparently required little or no emphasis in instruction.

The following types of errors appeared most frequently in grammar:

1. Errors in sentence structure ranked first in frequency in the study made by McCarthy, second in frequency in the study made by Potter and Vaughn. They were third in the study by Lyman and Stormzand and fourth in

the study by Johnson. In the writer's study sentence structure ranked first.

2. Failure of a verb to agree with its subject in person and number ranked first in the Charters and Miller study and third in the Stormzand, Lyman and Johnson studies. In the present study it ranked second in grades six and seven, and seventh in grade eight.

3. Wrong form of pronoun ranked first in frequency in the Stormzand study and third in the Charters and Miller study. In the present study it ranked third as a grammatical error.

4. Errors in grammar ranked fourth in frequency in the study made by Vaughn and fifth in the studies by Potter and Parker. In the study by Seeger it ranked third. In the present study errors in grammar ranked first as compared with capitalization and punctuation (See Table XXII).

5. Errors in punctuation ranked first in the Stormzand study and first in all four schools represented by the Lyman study, and second in the Johnson study. In the writer's study errors in punctuation ranked second in frequency. In all three studies the chief errors in punctuation were independent clauses of a compound sentence not separated, members of a series not separated. In the writer's study independent clauses of compound sentences not separated ranked ninth in grade six, tenth in grade seven, and third in grade eight. The members of a series not separated ranked second in grade six, first in grade seven, and fourth in grade eight.

6. Errors in capitalization ranked second in the Johnson study and third in the writer's study (See Table XXII). Errors in the use of the capital letter at the beginning of a sentence ranked first in the Johnson

study. In the writer's study it ranked sixth in grade eight. This type of error did not occur in grades six and seven.

Thus, in order of frequency, the findings in the present study compare favorably with those obtained by other investigators in the field.

(B) The rules in grammar, punctuation, and capitalization in the present study which were violated by the pupils

1. Sentence structure

A sentence is the expression of a complete thought. It must contain a subject and a predicate.

2. Wrong tense

Verbs have forms to indicate the present, past, future tense, present perfect, past perfect and future perfect tense.

3. Confusion of prepositions

Prepositions show various distinctions in use and meaning which must be learned by practice. The preposition in and into was a frequent error.

4. Misplaced modifiers

Modifiers should be placed as near as possible to the word or words they modify. No modifier should be placed between to and its infinitive.

5. Wrong form of pronouns

The subject and predicate pronoun are in the nominative case.

The object of a transitive verb and the object of a preposition are in the objective case.

TABLE XXII

Total Errors in Grammar, Punctuation, and Capitalization for All
Grades in the Schools of the Present Study

Total Errors in:	Grade			Total Errors	Rank
	Six	Seven	Eight		
Grammar	7722	6868	4264	18,854	1
Punctuation	3021	4076	3137	10,234	2
Capitalization	2276	2177	1602	6,055	3

6. Confusion of past tense and past participles

Past tense has been stated. The past participle is that part of the verb form which is used after I have to form the perfect tense.

7. Failure of a verb to agree with its subject

A verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

8. Failure of a pronoun to agree with its antecedent

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number and case.

9. Confusion of adverbs and adjectives

An adjective modifies a noun; an adverb modifies a verb, adjective or another adverb should be taught.

10. Formation of plurals

Most nouns form their plural by adding s or es to the singular.

Nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant change y to i and add es to form the plural.

The words half, wife, knife, life, and a few others change f to v before adding the suffix s or es.

A few nouns form their plural in en.

A few nouns form their plural by a change of vowel.

11. Double negatives

Two negatives contradict each other and make an affirmative.

12. Wrong verbs

A transitive verb requires an object to complete its meaning; an intransitive verb does not require an object to complete its meaning.

13. Wrong moods

Most errors are due to the use of the subjunctive mood. The subjunctive is a very technical thing. Charters says: (Grammar Curriculum, Sixteenth Yearbook) "To understand it thoroughly a child must have a feeling for language seldom possessed by young children."

14. Wrong use of their and there

Their is a pronoun and there an adverb.

15. Possessive sign omitted

The possessive case of most singular nouns has 's. Plural nouns ending in s add an apostrophe to denote possession. Plural nouns not ending in s take 's.

16. Wrong case

The subject of a sentence is in the nominative case.

17. Confusion of comparative and superlative

The comparative is used in comparing two persons or things and the superlative is used in comparing more than two things.

18. Dangling participles

The participle should be connected with the rest of the sentence.

19. Apostrophe omitted

The apostrophe is used to denote possession and in contractions.

20. Double comparisons

The comparative degree of an adjective is usually formed by adding er to the positive. There are a few irregular forms.

The superlative is usually formed by adding est. There are a

few irregular forms.

Many adjectives of two syllables, and most adjectives of three syllables, are compared by the use of more and most.

The comparative and not the superlative is used in comparing two persons or things.

The superlative is used to compare one person or thing with two or more others.

Rule No. 18 was not violated by the pupils of grade six. Rule No. 16 was not violated by the pupils of grade seven.

Rules in punctuation which were violated by the pupils

1. Comma omitted after transposed words, phrases and clauses

Place a comma after transposed words, phrases and clauses.

2. Parenthetical words not set off by commas

Words not necessary in the sentence should be set off by commas.

3. Comma omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence

The clauses of a compound sentence should be separated by a comma.

4. Comma omitted in a series

The word and is seldom used in a series except between the last two words.

5. A comma omitted after the name of the person addressed

A comma should be placed after the name of a person addressed.

6. Quotation marks omitted

Place quotation marks before and after words of a direct quotation.

7. Appositives not set off by commas

Appositives should be set off by commas.

8. Unnecessary punctuation

9. Period omitted after abbreviations

Abbreviated words should be followed by a period.

10. Period omitted after initials

Every initial should be followed by a period.

11. A period omitted at the close of a declarative sentence

This is often due to oversight.

12. Comma to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence

A comma is generally used to separate a quotation from the rest of the sentence.

13. Interrogation point omitted

Place an interrogation point at the end of every interrogative sentence.

14. Comma omitted between city and state.

A comma should be placed between city and state.

Rule No. 13 was not violated by the pupils of grade seven. Rules No. 1 and 13 were not violated by the pupils of grade eight. Rules violated in capitalization in the present study:

1. Proper nouns

Proper nouns should be capitalized.

2. The first word of a direct quotation

The first word of a direct quotation should be capitalized.

3. Proper adjectives

Adjectives derived from proper nouns should be capitalized.

4. Unnecessary capitals

Avoid unnecessary capitals.

5. Titles

Titles should be capitalized.

6. Beginning of a sentence

Every sentence should begin with a capital letter.

7. Abbreviations

Abbreviations should be capitalized.

8. Words relating to God

Words relating to God should be capitalized.

9. The important words in the titles of compositions

The important words in the titles of compositions should be capitalized.

Rule No. 9 was not violated by the pupils of grade six.

In general the rules violated by the pupils in the writer's study are similar to the rules violated in the Charters and Stormzand studies.

(c) The items which were omitted from the course of study, and which, on the basis of the errors made by the pupils, required emphasis on instruction.

An analysis of the course of study in question revealed that there were no such omissions relative to grammar, punctuation, and capitalization. The persons responsible for the construction for this course of

study in English which is used in the schools involved in the present study were evidently well aware of the nature of pupils' probable errors and difficulties in the field of English composition.

(d) The items which were included in the course of study in English but which on the basis of the pupils' errors, apparently required little or no emphasis in instruction.

Some types of errors were so infrequent in the study that little emphasis was required in instruction. The items in grammar are:

Confusion of comparative and superlative, wrong moods, wrong case, possessive sign omitted, double comparisons, dangling participles, and wrong use of the pronoun their and the adverb there.

Items in punctuation:

Appositives not set off by commas, comma omitted between the city and state, interrogation point omitted, period omitted at the close of a declarative sentence, and comma to separate quotations from the rest of the sentence.

Items in capitalization:

Initials, words relating to God, and important words in the titles of compositions.

The items listed above in grammar compare favorably with the items which occurred infrequently in the Charter's study.

The items in punctuation compare favorably with those listed in the Stormzand study.

The infrequent items in capitalization in the writer's study were not listed in other studies.

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APPENDIX

Course of Study in English Grammar

Grade 6

Composition

Oral - Wisconsin Course of Study, p. 55

Written - Wisconsin Course of Study, p. 55

Note: Observe Minimum Time Schedule

Correct Usage Wisconsin Course of Study, p. 58 Habit Formation A

There were several; should not; if I were; each must do his own work; doesn't; awful, very; John (he).

N.B. Review accomplishment standards of previous grades.

Punctuation Wisconsin Course of Study p. 58 Habit Formation B

Comma to set off yes or no, direct quotation, nouns in direct address, quotation marks, exclamation point, apostrophe to show possession, hyphen at the end of a line where word is properly divided, hyphen in compound words, comma between city and state, comma in dates, colon in letter form, as Gentlemen:, parenthetical words, comma to separate the clauses of a compound sentence, comma after transposed words, phrases and clauses. Semicolon to separate the clauses of a compound sentence when the conjunction is omitted.

Review standards of accomplishment of previous grades:

Period at the end of sentence, comma in a series of words, period after abbreviations, interrogation point, apostrophe in contractions.

Capitalization

Proper nouns, the first word of a sentence, I and O, initials, the days of the week and months, the first word of a line of poetry, names of holidays, the first word of a direct quotation, important words in titles, words relating to God, proper adjectives.

Grammar N.B. Figures indicate periods in which taught.

- (1) Noun: Common, Proper, Abstract, Collective Noun
Verb: Regular, irregular
- (2) Adverb: Time, Place, Manner, Comparison; Degree
Adjective: Proper, Descriptive, Comparison, Degree
- (3) Preposition: Prepositional Phrase, Conjunction
- (4 & 5) Sentence: Simple, Compound subject and predicate; Modifiers, Complements, Predicate Adjectives, Predicate Nominatives, Direct object.
- (6) Kinds: Declarative, Imperative, Interrogative, Exclamatory.

Course of Study in English Grammar

Grade 7

Composition

Oral - Wisconsin Course of Study p. 59

Written - Wisconsin Course of Study p. 59

Note: Observe Minimum Time Schedule

Correct Usage Wisconsin Course of Study p. 59 Habit Formation A

Use the drills in the text

Punctuation Wisconsin Course of Study p. 59 Habit Formation B

Semicolon in compound sentences and the appositive set off by commas.

Review standards of accomplishment for previous grades.

Capitalization

Review standards of accomplishment for previous grades

Grammar: N.B. Figures in parentheses indicate the period in which taken.

- (1) Noun -- kinds: Inflection, number, gender; (2) Case
- (3) Pronoun: Kinds, personal, interrogative, demonstrative; indefinite, Inflections, number, gender, person, case
- (4) Verb: Kinds, reg., irreg., trans., intrans., auxiliary, linking; Verb phrase inflections; voice, tense, person, number.
- (5) Adverb: Kinds -- time, place, manner, degree; comparison; use modifier.
- (6) Adjective: kinds, descriptive, limiting, pronomial, demonstrative, proper, articles
Uses: modifier, complement, comparison
Preposition; conjunction; interjection

Course of Study in English Grammar

Grade 8

Composition

Oral - Wisconsin Course of Study p. 59 Note: Observe Minimum
Written - Wisconsin Course of Study p. 59 Time Schedule

Correct Usage Wisconsin Course of Study p. 59 Habit Formation A

Punctuation Wisconsin Course of Study p. 59 Habit Formation B
Review standards of accomplishment for all grades.

Capitalization

Review standards of accomplishment for all grades.

Grammar: Figures in parentheses indicate the period in which taken

- (1) Mastery of parts of speech with their inflections.
- (2) Recognition of sentence, phrase, clause
- (3) Kinds of sentences, simple, compound and complex
- (4) Clauses: Noun, adjectival, adverbial.
- (5) Connectives: conjunction, coordinate, subordinate
- (6) Verb: Kinds-regular, irregular, transitive, intransitive
Mode, indicative, subjunctive, imperative
Voice, active, passive
Tense: primary and secondary
Number, singular, plural
Person, First, second, third
- (7) Verbals; participle, gerund, infinitive
- (8) Ability to give a complete conjugation of verbs; outline parts of speech fluent analysis of simple, compound, and complex sentences.

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a Curriculum Based Upon Pupil Deficiencies
in Grade Six, Seven, and Eight in Certain
Parochial Schools," written by Sister Mary
Valeria Meintz, C.S.A., has been accepted by
the Graduate School of Loyola University
with reference to form, and by the readers
whose names appear below, with reference to
content. It is, therefore, accepted as a
partial fulfilment of the requirements of the
degree conferred.

William H. Johnson, Ph.D. March 24, 1934

James A. Fitzgerald, Ph.D. April 2, 1934